

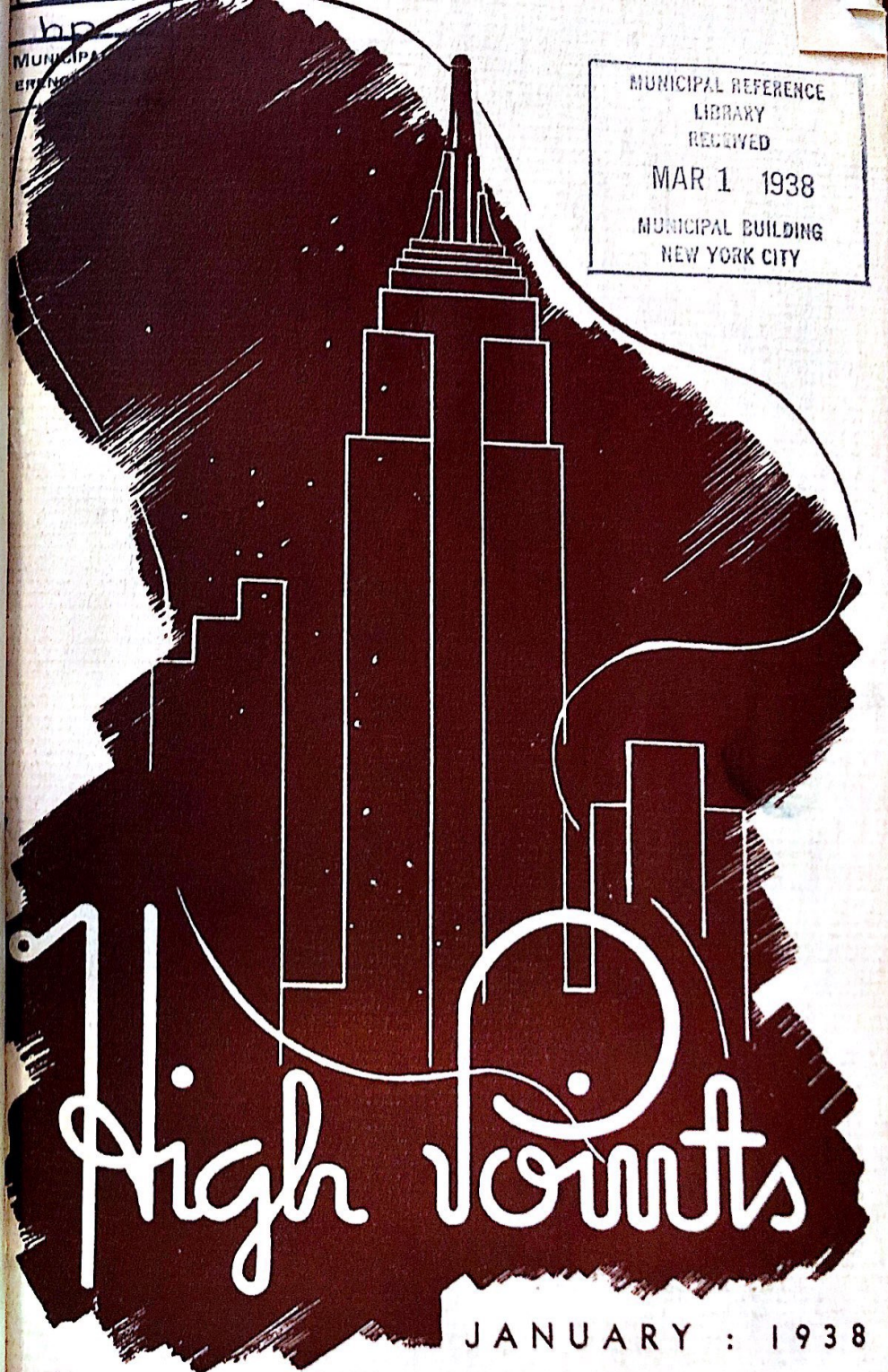
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Educational Yearbook—1936 *Reviewed by A. H. Lass*

Teaching High School Students How to Read, by Stella S. Center and Gladys L. Persons *Reviewed by A. H. Lass*

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IT CAN BE DONE

Important changes are occurring along the educational frontiers. Disaffection with formalistic teaching, with traditional philosophy, with curriculum emphasis rather than child emphasis—these and other factors have forced to the fore a new spirit of investigation, change and evaluation. The new emphases have revealed themselves as arising from vested subject interests, and administrative, political, religious, and industrial pressure groups, as well as from disinterested educators' analyses.

There are many new trends in education. However, since this article is concerned with only one aspect of secondary education, only those significant developments which are particularly germane to this phase will be considered. After critically examining these new trends to determine which are most pertinent, the following were accepted as the basis for the redirection of our educational energies. These will be discussed briefly in terms of their origins, purposes and implications.

As a result of the labile social, political, and economic conditions brought on by the World War, with its international repercussions, there has developed a strong movement to stress the social sciences

as the primary core for individual and social adjustment. Vocational education and guidance represent another, and, we hope, articulate angle, designed to aid the individual in effecting economic, as well as social adjustment. Its danger lies in offering highly specialized courses intended to prepare the student for jobs which, because of the rapid technological and economic changes effecting employment demands in industry, are largely non-existent.

The secondary school curriculum has been subjected to searching analysis and evaluation in terms of educational objectives, and has been found inadequate and misdirected in many ways. Thus there is a movement for reorganization of the entire high school curriculum. The influence of such educators as Plato, Vittorino da Feltra, Parker, Harris, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Dewey, Rugg and others, has culminated in the "Activity Schools" or "Progressive Schools" where emphasis is placed on child growth rather than factual learning. The effects of this movement have been far-reaching and evidences of their influence may today be seen in most schools, in some form or other.

The past twenty years has

marked an energetic reawakening of the entire problem of character education. Stimulus for this, as for most recent educational movements, has been the pressure of post-war problems. Inherent in the character education program is a consideration of the potentialities of extracurricular activities as an agent for moral, intellectual, and social growth. And so we find today long educational treatises on the Home Room, Assembly, Clubs and Student Council.

One of the most significant trends is the attempt to determine scientifically the objectives of education. This represents a healthy, vigorous symptom. Educational growth is best fostered by honest criticism. It is true that there have been reprisals for frank criticism, but these have been consistently opposed by civic-minded teacher organizations.

There are, of course, other important trends in education, but we cannot deal with them all. Teachers today must consider these new phases of education in planning their work. The departmentalization of the secondary schools forces the teacher specialist to interpret the "new education" primarily in his own sphere of activity. However, there is a danger in narrow interpretation; it leads to subject pigeon-holing when the emphasis should be on subject integration and articulation. We should ask ourselves, "How may

our subject interpret and apply the new trends in education?" "How may our subject aid in the total growth of the students exposed to it?"

There are practical limitations which impede the full realization of these new approaches in education. Chief among these is the classroom situation. Even the best appointed classroom forms a forbidding setting for the development of that sensitivity and alertness to great and fundamental truths which we aim through education to inculcate in the student. How praiseworthy and yet how pathetically futile are the frequent attempts of teachers to "decorate" the barracks which we call classrooms. The teacher must do the well-nigh impossible and strive to keep the pitch of interest so high, in these barren and unaesthetic surroundings, that the student will not feel the creative urge, in the spirit of *ars gratia artis*, to leave a carved memento of his presence on the furniture. The adolescent physique is so constituted as to require frequent physical activity; yet our classrooms are so constructed and managed, by the fixity of the furniture and the schedule of periods, that the students' restless energy must ever be quelled and frustrated.

It is not necessary to say more, though much could be said, to indicate the need for classroom settings more adequately planned

in conformity with the principles of adolescent psychology. However, in view of the existence of mass instruction, many of the faults of the modern classroom must be accepted. That does not mean, though, that we must remain defeatists. There are means by which the learning situation may be made infinitely more attractive and thus more effective.

Certain facilities present in Samuel J. Tilden High School have made it possible to capitalize this principle in education. One of the rooms assigned to the Biology Department has been converted into a Nature Room. It is equipped with many specimens, botanical and zoological, so arranged as to present miniature nature trails. The spirit of the room is that of an active, unpretentious clubroom with the dignity of a museum. One is always impressed by the quiet hum of purposeful activity which pervades the room. The work is done entirely by students—students working on projects, on experiments, as curators of the various groups of plants and animals. The material is replenished and cared for by the students, wherever possible. They are encouraged to change the tableau of the room from season to season, and arrange timely exhibits. The supervision is unobtrusive to the point where it is noticeable only to the trained observer. Undoubtedly other schools have similar

facilities of which they may not have availed themselves, or whose possibilities they may not have perceived.

The activities of the Nature Room, by whatever title such a room may be known in other schools, have been distinctly in the extra-curricular sphere. It is our contention that the Nature Room may be incorporated into the workaday curriculum with great benefits accruing therefrom, and with little difficulty. Leading educators have expressed the belief that "extra-curricular" as a concept is a misnomer, and that the so-called extra-curricular activities would best be inducted into the school curriculum. As expressed by W. L. Wrinkle, in the "Challenge to Secondary Education", "The traditional dualism between the curricular and extra-curricular should be avoided by integrating the activities commonly designated as extra-curricular, into the regular curricular program of the school."

In an attempt to realize the implications of the modern educational trends Miss Sarah Asnin, Laboratory Assistant, and the author planned a program of activities designed to achieve the following objectives:

- (a) To articulate the work of the Nature Room with that of the existing classes in Biology.

- (b) To provide an attractive learning environment for the social concourse of students engaged in self-initiated activity.
- (c) To destroy the dualism between extra-curricular and curricular activities.
- (d) To provide a situation where students may explore vocational possibilities in science.
- (e) To provide a fruitful medium for coöperative expression and development of pupil attitudes and ideals, and
- (f) To broaden the functions of the Nature Room in order that they may serve as an integrating force in the departmentalization of the school, to the end that the activities may be "society-centered" rather than "child-centered" or "curriculum-centered."

Two classes doing concurrent work were selected, one elementary biology and one general science. The topic being taught was the roll call of animals and plants. During a week of classroom preparation for the experiment, animals were assembled in each of the classes, without regard to taxonomic relationships. The students were then asked to group those animals which they felt were most closely related. After some time

of trial and error reaction, the students perceived the need for establishing basic relational criteria. It was found, for example, that the presence of feathers indicated the animal was a bird, and hair determined the mammal. But when the question of scales came up, it was found that two totally different groups possessed that character in common, reptiles and fish. This led to more careful observation, the need for suspended judgment before arriving at conclusions and finally the need for verification.

The culminating step of the unit was the application of the generalizations arrived at in the classroom. On the following day the students, after being given directions, were taken into the Nature Room. There specimens were found at ordered intervals, each labelled with a different number. The specimens selected were different from those which had been used in the classroom. It was the task of the students to determine the group of animals to which each of the specimens belonged. The students worked individually and in small groups. Discussion and coöperation were encouraged. The students were urged to analyze each specimen carefully. There was no need for speed. There were no marks. The response was gratifying. Students worked over each specimen, challenging each other to show reasons for their

respective decisions when discrepancies appeared to arise in the group. The new spirit was eye-opening. The second class came to the Nature Room in the fourteenth (last) period of a Friday evening. This period ends at nine minutes to six. When the period ended the students remained; there were two or three puzzling specimens yet to be classified. We finally eased the boys and girls out of the laboratory by reminding them that the school building was being closed.

The same general procedure was employed in the teaching of the roll call of the plant kingdom, with the exception that this time, to provide variety, the group was given a list and told to go out and bring back the specimens included on the list—in short, a scavenging trip. The results were equally heartening.

Soon after the excursion to the Nature Room the classes were engaged in a discussion of the methods of learning or of thinking, which they had employed in the previous lessons. The steps of thinking evolved by the classes were startlingly similar to those enunciated by Dewey. As one student naively expressed it, "First you gotta know what you're lookin' for and then you look the thing over for clues. Then you figure out what you think it is and then you check up to see if it is what you think it is. And

if it checks, it is."

In a follow-up lesson, the students were presented with a social problem, in an attempt to induce the transfer of the method of thinking which they had used in this science unit. "Each year hundreds of school children are killed in automobile accidents. How can this be avoided?" The class suggested that we ought first to analyze the *causes* of automobile accidents. Causes were listed and remedies suggested by the class, but in the main the pupils were dissatisfied. There were conflicting opinions as to the proportionate destructiveness of each cause mentioned. There was an expressed need for precise information in order to place proper emphasis on each of the remedial measures in question. One of the students then said, "Why not write a letter to Police Commissioner Valentine to ask him for exact information?" This represents a significant transfer; the need for precision demanded in the scientific approach had been applied to a social situation. The class also recognized the difficulty of controlling the factors in so involved a situation as traffic regulation in New York City. Tentative remedies suggested, pending statistical information, were the building of more playgrounds, the opening of play streets, the teaching of safety through dramatics, the application of more rigid driv-

ing tests before operators' licenses are granted, and so on.

It is not our purpose to describe in detail a classroom recitation. The lesson is cited purely as evidence that transfer is possible in specific, directed classroom situations. Needless to say it would require many applications before the scientific approach could become a permanent guiding force.

What can we justly conclude from this experiment? An extra-curricular agency was incorporated into the curriculum for classroom use. The classroom scene was changed from the usual "cell" to an interesting, informal setting more conducive to learning. The students learned more easily and retained longer (revealed by later testing) what the curriculum postulated. An intrinsic and powerful motivation was set in motion, which effectively improved class morale. The possibility of utilizing the scientific attitude in the solution of social problems was made manifest to the students.

The aforementioned experiment represents but one way of using the Nature Room. The ingenious teacher can devise many other rich experiences for the students. To further the execution of the objectives previously outlined, the following activities are proposed:

- (a) Science classes may assign two or three students each to conduct timely experi-

ments in the Nature Room, during their free time or study periods. The progress of the experiments may then be reported to the respective classes from time to time. Experiments on vitamins, plant and animal growth, and genetical breeding are particularly adaptable for this purpose.

- (b) Group projects may be developed by class committees for the Children's Science Fair, for school exhibits, and as an expression of interest in hobbies.
- (c) Individual projects may be prepared by students selected from various classes, and responsible to their classes.
- (d) The Nature Room may be developed to the point where it becomes the School Museum.
- (e) A revolving bulletin board may be set up with notices of timely interest to science classes, and to students engaged in projects or experiments. Records of the progress of student experiments may be kept on assigned sections of the bulletin board for continuous inspection by students and supervisors.
- (f) The activities of the Nature

Room may be crystallized from time to time, in school Assembly presentations. This offers an excellent opportunity for interdepartmental coöperation. For example, students working on experiments in bacteria, may decide to dramatize the work of Louis Pasteur. The English department could aid in the formulation of the script; the Speech department with the actual presentation, the History department with the historical setting and locale, the Art department with posters and scenery, the Home Economics department with the costumes, and so forth.

- (g) At intervals during the term there could be inter-science-class presentations of research committee accomplishments, as well as interclub programs.
- (h) Interested students who have performed faithful service in menial work, such as test tube washing, may be promoted to the position of Curator of Mammals, of Reptiles, or other post. Their duties might be to care for the particular group of plants or animals of which they are the Curator, to arrange

exhibits, to receive visitors, and so on.

- (i) A science library may be accumulated to aid the youthful investigators in their research, and familiarize them with the literature of science. The library may be open also, to all those interested, as a reference-room.
- (j) On programmed occasions the entire student staff of the Nature Room may be assembled to hold forum discussions of their work. If the time scheduled prevents a general meeting; concurrent classes may send their representatives to attend the discussions. The miniature "Town Meeting" would be led by speakers, either students or teachers, prepared to talk on the topic in question. Such topics are to be broad, socially significant, related to science, and timely. The following are some of the subjects which the author has profitably employed in club meetings:

Sterilization of Social Misfits.

Euthenic Problems (Slum Control, Park Development, etc.)

Are Criminals Born or Made?

Nature versus Nurture.
Can Human Nature Be
Changed?

Conditions of Hospitals.
Specialization of Medi-
cine.

School Sanitation.

Mercy Killings.

School Lunchrooms.

Health Hazards in In-
dustry.

Personal Hygiene.

Conservation and Science.

- (k) Trips may be arranged to
hospitals, museums, science
laboratories, chemical and
biological industrial centers,

botanical and zoological
gardens, and other appro-
priate places.

Objections will undoubtedly be
made that this program is too am-
bitious and high flown. However,
we feel mature reflection will in-
dicate that all of the activities de-
scribed will not be undertaken at
one time, that judicious selection
and experimentation are in order,
that too much must not be ex-
pected of the students, and finally,
that the program postulates a long
range period of development.

WILLIAM BERMAN.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

AN EXPERIMENT IN AMERICAN HISTORY WITH BRIGHT STUDENTS

The experiment in the process
of description had its inception, in
part, in the desire to add to the
cumulative evidence of the fact
that there is too much lamenting
on the part of teachers on the
score of "what we would do if"
and altogether too little actual
coming to grips with the obstacles,
often imaginary, and doing what
we would like to do in our teach-
ing. Too frequently there is more
talking than doing by those whose
doing is talking. What was more
important, having in mind that we
live in an age which is acutely
conscious of the cardinal objective
of education as the realization of

the inherent potentialities of our
students, we note that we are sig-
nally remiss in the fulfillment of
our trust if we do not search for,
discover, and utilize all the oppor-
tunities for worthy self-expression
afforded by our course of study
in American History. It was with
this objective in view that there
was conceived and initiated a dif-
ferent procedure in the teaching
of a group of boys and girls who
were about to embark on a voyage
of discovery and exploration in
the study of American History.
He had especially three aims in
mind in guiding the class—to make
the social world intelligible, to

mould rich, creative, many-sided
personalities, to develop a realiza-
tion of, and regard and feeling
for the world of historical liter-
ature.

With the coöperation of the
administration in the person of
the teacher in charge of programs,
a class was organized consisting of
boys and girls who showed prom-
ise of more than average possibil-
ities in achievement in American
History. Into the class were ad-
mitted academic students who had
acquitted themselves satisfactorily
in their study of Modern European
History by having gained a mini-
mum mark of 85%. Commercial
students were admitted whose gen-
eral scholastic record had placed
them consistently among the most
promising students in the school.
Special programs were arranged
for each member of the class so
that the entire class had a study
period following the history ses-
sion to be utilized for reference
work. Further, the entire class
was to remain intact for one year,
have the same teacher for the
year, and use as the basis for in-
struction "America, its History and
People" by Faulkner and Kepner.

The experiment necessitated a
decided recasting of class proce-
dure. On each Friday the suc-
ceeding week's work was given in
mimeographed form to each mem-
ber of the class. The entire class
met for discussion on Monday.
On Tuesday one half of the class

worked in the school library or
the public library which is across
the street from the school, while
the other half and the teacher met
in the classroom to continue dis-
cussion. On Wednesday the entire
class worked in the library under
teacher guidance and control. On
Thursday, Tuesday's program was
repeated with an exchange of
groups. On Friday the entire class
assembled in the classroom to
conclude the discussion of the
week's unit with the understand-
ing that they were prepared for
a written examination. It seemed
to have taken the students about
one month before a satisfactory
adjustment to the new order was
made. Incidentally the coöperation
of the Art and Science Depart-
ments was solicited and granted,
Mr. Cyrus G. Milne and Mr.
Bernard Jaffe, the chairman of the
Art and Science Departments re-
spectively, guiding the class to a
knowledge and appreciation of
America in the Arts and Sciences.
As it would unduly lengthen the
report being made if we were to
include a typical week's work,
there being three lessons per week
in this teaching pattern, we merely
list one third of a week's respon-
sibility.

UNIT THREE—LESSON V

For varied reasons—economic
nationalistic, and humanitarian-
imperialistic—Uncle Sam joins the
rank of empire-owning powers.

The "White Man's Burden" is not lightly assumed, borne, or shed. Many interests are to be considered—the rights of the natives, the interests of the "white man", the effects on the world at large. Note the why, what, where, and whither of American Imperialism. Is it for the better or worse? Make a mental balance sheet before you render your decision.

In this lesson an imperialist war is fought and we note our Pacific interests as we adopt a Far-Eastern Policy.

Faulkner and Kepner — pages 678-689

Hamm and Dombrow — chaps. XV-XVI

A. "Take up the White Man's Burden;

Send forth the best ye breed."

1. Cuba provides a problem and an opportunity
 - a. Cuba "hath charms"—our interests and desires—economic, humanitarian, strategic
2. The War approaches—precipitating incidents
3. War is declared and waged
4. War's end brings a treaty electric with imperialism
 - a. Terms of importance
 - b. Annexation of Philippines—most significant.

B. "Balboa and his men, silent on a peak in Darien."

Interests in the Pacific (early)

1. China
2. Japan
3. Samoa
4. Hawaii

C. Development of a Far-Eastern Policy

1. The United States in the Philippines
 - a. Characteristics of our rule
2. "Does the Constitution follow the flag?"
 - a. Uncle Sam in Puerto Rico
 - b. The Insular Cases say, "Halt, Constitution."
3. "Open the Door"—our policy in China (Hay)
 - a. Reasons prompting our policy
 - b. John Hay writes a "note"
 - c. The Boxer Rebellion casts credit upon us
4. The Stimson Doctrine (non-recognition)
 - a. Japan in China
 - b. Implementing the Kellogg Pact via Stimson

Answer the following questions:

1. Did we have cause good and sufficient to war with Spain in 1898? Explain.
2. Condemn or justify the terms of the Treaty of Paris which concluded the Spanish-American war.
3. Argue: Resolved, "The Philippines were rightfully granted independence."
4. Explain the meaning of—
 - a. "Remember the Maine"

- b. "jingo journalism"
- c. "yellow peril"
- d. Platt Amendment
- e. economic imperialism
- f. "open door policy"
- g. "Does the Constitution follow the flag?"

READINGS AND REPORTS

1. Hart — Contemporaries, IV, Nos. 186, 189-91, 180, 187, 193
2. Faulkner—American Economic History, pp. 649-53
3. Magruder—American Government, Chap. XVI
4. Magruder—National Governments and International Relations, Chap. III
5. Elson—History of the United States, pp. 873-85
6. Fish—Path of Empire, Chaps. V-VII
7. Lingley—Since the Civil War, Chaps. XVI-XVIII
8. Fish—American Diplomacy, pp. 408-16
9. Peck—Twenty Years of the Republic, pp. 408-16
10. Page—Dramatic Moments in American Diplomacy, Chap. XII
11. Sparks—Expansion of the American People, Chap. XV
12. Muzzey—The American People, Chap. XV
13. Mead—Development of the United States since 1865, pp. 226-231, 480-93
14. Beard—Rise of American Civilization, II, Chap. XXIV

15. Latane—America as a World Power, pp. 3-28
16. Bishop—Theodore Roosevelt and his Time, I, pp. 80-91
17. Haworth—The United States in our Times, pp. 232-266
18. MacDonald — Documentary Source Book, Nos. 184-185
19. Atkinson — The Philippine Islands, pp. 337-372
20. Hoar — Autobiography of Seventy Years, II, pp. 304-20
Map Study — The United States as a World Power, opposite page 682

It was required in preparation for each lesson that the outline furnished be used in guidance, the questions given be answered in writing, the report made with minimum time given to summary and map study made as indicated. Students were made to feel free to adjust the reading program with due regard to the avoidance of having the work encroach excessively upon their time. They were urged to bring to class for discussion any questions which arose from the matter at hand and any important findings met in magazines and books consulted beyond the text. Towards the close of the first half year's study it became appropriate to probe for the student critical reaction. For that purpose the following questionnaire was submitted to the class, introduced by a declaration of purpose, the request for the exercise of sincere critical judgment, and

the admonition that names were not to be appended to the replies. The specific questions follow:

1. Do you find that the time required in your preparation of the assignment at home is excessive? Explain.

2. Do you find any values in the necessity imposed of consulting other references than your text? Which?

3. Do you find that the freedom from the need of daily recitation has resulted in gain or loss? Explain.

4. Do you find the time spent in the library to be well or poorly spent? Why?

5. Do you find the procedure in operation this term preferable to the routine in history classes to which you have been accustomed? Why?

6. Do you find that your knowledge has been increased? Your thinking grown more critical? Your intelligence challenged? Your imagination stirred? How?

7. Would you prefer the experiment to be continued or discontinued? Why?

8. Would you recommend that similar classes be established in other subjects, it being understood that a student was to be limited to membership in one special class? Why?

9. Would you recommend the use of your text for all students of American History? Why?

10. Would you change the pro-

cedure in any material manner? How?

11. Please note any other suggestions, recommendations, criticism constructive and destructive, which come to your mind and may not have been called for by the preceding questions.

An analysis of the twenty one replies indicates on a mere numerical basis—

Question

1. 7 yes, 14 no
2. 19 yes, 2 no
3. 15 gain, 6 loss
4. 19 well spent, 2 poorly spent
5. 17 preferable, 4 not preferable
6. varied responses
7. 18 continued, 3 discontinued
8. 17 yes, 4 no
9. 19 yes, 2 no
10. varied responses
11. varied responses

The mere numeric summary is meaningless without the actual reading of every reply to every question. A few typical responses may be noted, borrowing from the "brick bats" as well as the "bouquets."

"It is possible to finish most of the week's work in the library, occasionally answering some questions at home. It doesn't take as much time to prepare the lesson as it did in European History."

"The time necessary to entirely

complete the lessons as they should be done is excessive and there is no reason why history should take an entire study period and then more time after school."

"Consulting other books than our text has value. It gives us different views on our problems and often contains more or different material."

"I think it is a gain. My preparation of the work is not with an eye toward knowing certain questions for tomorrow's assignment. It takes a broader view. I do the work for the entire week as a whole until the topic for the week has been impressed in my mind in all its phases."

"I find I learned more the week when I came to class for daily recitations than I learned in any week of the term."

"I find it to be well spent. I have become familiar with the books in the library not only in history but in many other subjects. Also, the reference books act as a supplement to my regular text."

"It used to be quite monotonous to go to class every day, take a certain assignment, go home, do it, come back the next day and go over the homework. This term the routine makes a person have a feeling of responsibility. If you don't do the work, you are just left behind. The result is being 'put out' of the class into another."

"Knowledge increased? Think-

ing grown more critical? Intelligence challenged? Imagination stirred? No more than in the regular class."

"I think I would like to continue in this class. As time progresses the work becomes easier and more enjoyable. I would never enjoy a regular history class again."

"I would rather be in a regular class every day where the work was taken more slowly and chronologically."

It might be interesting to note the measure and nature of reference works consulted. The class was requested to keep a record of books used and to submit each title once, without regard to the number of different times readings were made from each. The following resulted:

Minimum number of books consulted—20

Maximum number of books consulted—36

Average number of books consulted—25

AMONG THE REFERENCES READ WERE:

1. Adams—March of Democracy
2. Beard—Rise of American Civilization
3. Fish—The Rise of the Common Man
4. Mead—The Development of the United States since 1865
5. Forman—Sidelights on our Social and Economic History

6. Allen—Only Yesterday
7. Hacker and Kendrick—The United States since 1865
8. Kirkland—History of American Economic Life
9. Latane—America as a World Power
10. Faulkner—Quest for Social Justice
11. Sullivan—Our Times
12. McBain—The Living Constitution
13. Elson—History of the United States
14. McMaster—History of the People of the United States
15. Bowers—Jefferson and Hamilton
16. Buck—The Agrarian Crusade
17. Siegfried—America Comes of Age
18. Macdonald — Documentary Source Book

The conclusions to be drawn from this report must of necessity be tentative ones. Among the advantages of the plan as described above there appear:

1. A definite school adjustment to meet the needs of its superior students.
2. Strengthening of student sense of self-dependence.
3. Contact with a wealth of historical literature.
4. Broadening and deepening of knowledge of American civilization.
5. Utilizing the teacher as a guide.

6. An experience resulting in the satisfactions which rise from achievement.

7. Training to meet the situation of higher education.

Among the disadvantages may be listed:

1. Weakens the intellectual calibre of the average class.
2. Limitation of time for many discussions.
3. Difficulty of guessing wisely the problems to be skimmed and stressed.
4. Present inadequacy of measurement of the more worthy and enduring values of history.

Cautions to be observed in teaching a class using the procedure described:

1. The selection of class personnel must be exercised with extraordinary care. Admission should be limited to not alone the able, but to those definitely interested in history.
2. The procedure and requirements are not to be used as a strait-jacket. They must adjust themselves to our students as experience dictates. The teacher must undertake and enter upon the task with enthusiasm.
3. The class must be reasonably small. It is felt that the maximum size should be twenty-five.
4. The library facilities must be easily available.
5. The class should be given a special examination.

7. The teacher must make himself dispensable.

In conclusion, acknowledgment of grateful appreciation for never-failing aid and encouragement throughout the year's experiment is made to Dr. Milo F. McDonald, Principal, and Mr. Philip Nanes, Chairman of the Department of Social Studies, of the Bushwick High School. Further, we rest

generally satisfied with the experiment and commend it. How the students will fare in the Regents tests doesn't particularly worry us. They should and will do well. What we are genuinely interested in "is not what they do for a living, but what they do with life."

A. EUGENE HOROWITZ.
Bushwick High School.

THE TEACHER AND THE PUPIL'S MENTAL HEALTH

In the January, 1937 issue of the magazine *Coronet*, one of the cartoons represents a group of firemen attending to a burning school house. The caption reads "I'd have gotten a great kick out of this if it had happened twenty years ago".

Thus one of the newest periodicals repeats one of the oldest sentiments about school houses; they were places of such unhappiness that their destruction by fire would be a welcome relief.

In one form or another, in movies, on the radio, and in animated cartoons, we are constantly reminded of the restrictions and annoyances associated with the school-room. Rare indeed is the representation of the school as a place of happiness and freedom. An outstanding example of this attitude was the recent series of school pictures on a March of

Time program, to commemorate the centenary of the birth of Horace Mann. There were no strained features on the countenances of these youngsters. There were no repressed school-marms compelling perfect discipline and statuesque postures. In this series of pictures the atmosphere of the school, of which the teacher is the most prominent element, was conducive to mental health.

What is mental health? In one word: happiness, or enjoyment, or pleasure. If the students look back to their school days with remembrance of past joys, the school has been a success. The late Irving Thalberg was asked by the authorities of the high school in Brooklyn which he attended to indicate the outstanding events in his high school career. He replied that his memory of high school was almost a complete blank. But

he remembered very clearly that he had enjoyed the class of a certain English teacher, who was the only one whose name he could recall.

Mental health and mental security are the new things in education as they are in life itself. Material security of a certain kind we in America will enjoy in the future thanks to our various pension systems and the Social Security Act, the Supreme Court willing. It is mental security which is the crying need for today and for the future. A recent magazine article indicated that "55 to 60% of American hospital beds are occupied by mental hazards". There are more inmates in institutions for the mentally sick than there are students in American Colleges. Are we teachers aware of our obligations to the future?

No longer is the good teacher the one who knows his Latin grammar page by page; who knows all the footnotes in his history text; who knows all the rules for the comma. The amassing of facts for facts' sake is an educational notion that has long been proved worthless. How many of us here today who were serious students in our high school days, who made the Arista and Phi Beta Kappa, can remember enough of our Chemistry or Physics to obtain a passing grade in an elementary examination? How many of us could translate a paragraph of English into Latin, we who used to read Ovid's

Metamorphoses at sight? How many treaties of peace do we now recall, we who received 95% in History Regents? If we are honest, we must admit that very little of the factual information we once had at our fingers' tips is at our command now. Is it then all a waste? Decidedly not! The pleasure of knowing the day's work, of receiving your daily 10, of winning your teacher's commendation, of being elected to Arista, of being respected by your fellow students—these elements of happiness are part of our experiences which will always seem worth all the time spent in studying and doing home-work.

Not the facts, but the *pleasurable associations* of the facts, should be the motto of the teacher who would have his students in good mental health. The success of Mr. Chips in James Hilton's sympathetic tribute to the teaching profession was not in his scholarship or in his insistence upon daily home-work; but in his contribution of an understanding personality to the complex process which we call an education.

A visitor to a French school was impressed by the fact that the coördination was so perfect that at any given time the Minister of Education would know what subject was being taught in any school in France. Only a few months ago a visitor to the British schools recorded his impressions of the

discipline of the students. The behavior in the Fascist schools and in Russia can be understood from the rigorous dictation of the course of study. We ask ourselves, Is all this good for the student? Does it matter very much that he does not move in his seat once in forty-five minutes? Is school a training ground for living statues? Are they going to make a career of posing for artists? Are the admirers of all this rigor and perfect discipline and good manners admiring the important things? The phrase has been coined that England won the World War on the playing fields of Eton. Does it matter so very much that she won the World War at all when she has to spend forty-five billion dollars to re-arm her country, and when 100,000 gas masks are produced daily in preparation for the next war? Can the generation brought up in Eton or in the Lycée or in the Hochschule be considered an educated and civilized generation when it is behaving as it is today?

Can these people be said to possess mental health?

Let us be honest with ourselves. The Regents must be passed, it is true, and high marks must be made in order to enter college, but in the long run what are these factors compared with the pleasure in going to school?

Now for a specific program. The pupil reacts on the mental

health of the teacher and the teacher conditions the mental health of his students. Who of us has not been exhausted by the misbehavior of one or two unruly students? And who that is honest has not made other students suffer as a consequence? How shocked we were a few years ago when the statement was made that a large percentage of the New York City school teachers were "crack-pots." We were offended and rightly so. But what would we not give to know what our students really thought of us when we "flew off the handle"? And who has not?

The first principle, then, in securing the student's mental health is the maintenance of the mental health of the teacher. There are many factors involved, which need not concern us. Some of the destructive elements, however, deserve attention. No teacher can preserve his equanimity in the face of salary cuts, threats to his mandatory salary increases and his pension rights, interference with his freedom of expression, suspicions as to his loyalty and patriotism. How can one preserve a sound mind in the face of all these petty attacks which may not amount to much individually, but which collectively destroy one's peace of mind?

There is no need to go into details as to the means of assuring one's mental health. Perhaps a

glance at some of the popular books will offer ways and means. Perhaps some teachers ought to "Wake up and Live," or perhaps "Live Alone and Like it" but most of us will probably rejoice in the fact that we ought to "Be Glad We're Neurotic."

But what can we do for our pupils in addition to preserving our own good mental health? After all, the school is for the student. Outside of school, conditions may be most destructive to his peace of mind. He may have no quiet place in which to study; he may be one of many children and cannot be given adequate parental attention. His parents may have mistaken notions of home discipline and may inflict all sorts of punishments for misbehavior. The family may be unemployed. The child may be sensitive to his dependence on relief funds. The depression has brought a host of new factors contributing to unhappiness. The movies, the tabloids, and the inferior radio programs contribute their share of disturbing elements.

The teacher, like the physician, is expected to know everything. Normally he would have to teach about 200 boys a term. To remember the background, the mental endowment, the cultural influences, the economic circumstances of each of these 200 boys may seem too great a task; but it is unavoidable if we accept the principle that the duty of the teacher is

something more than the imparting of facts. If the teacher is to take care of the mental health of his charges, he must supply himself with case histories. If the task is too difficult for the individual teacher, some central agency like the Guidance Council must supply them. It is not enough for a teacher to give a pupil 85% as a final average at the end of the term and forget about him completely in six months. Those of us who have been teaching several years—do we remember much about the thousands of boys and girls who have sat in our classes? Do we not tend to remember only those who were exceptionally brilliant and those who annoyed us? If the teacher were not compelled to be an "example-assigner" or a "comma-corrector," but rather a real practitioner of preventative mental disease, he would be enabled to know his students more thoroughly.

Point No. 2 in the program, therefore, is the maintenance of case records for each student, listing factors contributory to mental health.

Thirdly, there must be a new attitude of teacher to pupil. There is one complex not in the books of Psychology that ought to be there: The Teacher-God Complex. When the teacher frankly admits that the binomial theorem or the provisions of the treaty of 1763 or the imperfect tense active of

loquor is not the most important thing in his own life and therefore only less important in his student's life, then he will lose his complex of dictating from above. Friendliness—rather than military obedience—will make the student a happier person. This does not imply that teachers are to be called by their first names, or that students may circulate freely in the teachers' rest rooms. But such an attitude of sincere friendship as Bliss Perry indicates in his delightful autobiography "And Gladly Teach," and as Cornelia Stratton Parker relates of her husband, Professor Carlton Parker, is not necessarily confined to college life. Have we not all had recalcitrant youngsters with hair unkempt, shoes unpolished, manners neglected, who have been completely transformed when we began to call them by their first names? This is no time for case histories of this or that marvelous transformation; but of the existence of such transformation there can be no doubt.

Point No. 4 refers to the encouragement by the teacher. Encouragement is a specific for many ills, physical as well as mental. In speech correction, encouragement of a stammerer often enables him to improve remarkably. And many a boy in the gymnasium has chinned the requisite number of times or climbed the rope because his teacher told him he could surely do it. In the more cultural

subjects encouragement helps remarkably to bring out some latent ability which may be hidden. The boy whose handwriting is incurably illegible may make aeroplane models of breath-taking grace and beauty. If he wants to make aeroplane designing his life-work, should that not be encouraged? There used to be an old joke about a Yankee who was asked whether he could play the fiddle. "I don't know," he replied, "I never tried!" Who knows what our boys are capable of doing until they have tried? Our encouragement of their efforts to do some one thing or things is worth much more than our insistence upon correct black-board headings.

If twenty years ago in elementary school you corrected a misspelled word, you were marked wrong, even though you wrote it correctly the second time. The teacher's reason was that you should have been perfect the first time. What a false impression this teacher was making upon her pupils! How many people in real life are perfect in their first draft of a story or in the first sketch of a painting? Would it not have been more conducive to the mental health of the children if they had been encouraged to correct their faults rather than punish them for being incapable of a perfection that is entirely unnatural?

Speaking at the commencement exercises of Manhattan College last

June, Dr. Frank P. Graves, Commissioner of Education in New York State, declared that "the creation of leaders was the most important goal of education." Continuing, he said: "History has proved that leaders are not the product of eugenics or heredity, but of the environment and training of higher education."

This implies that leaders in all fields of human activity are to be encouraged. Too much emphasis has been placed in the past on good grades or good behavior. The attitude is shifting to a consideration of other values: coöperation with fellow students, awareness of

social responsibilities, and the ability to carry a task to completion. Many of our children will be unable to learn the rules for the semi-colon, but they will make marvelous mechanics or shoe-salesmen. Even such humble pursuits are to be encouraged.

Point No. 5. Never Give Up. In this age, the word *incurable* is rapidly passing out of use. Many diseases formerly considered incurable are now preventable. The same attitude is observed in the discussion of mental hygiene.

JOSEPH MERSAND.
Boys High School.

AN EXPERIMENT IN AN ENGLISH HONOR CLASS

When I was given a fourth term Honor Class in English to teach, I planned a term's work that I hoped would challenge the exceptional abilities of my students. I felt that the greatest student activity was desirable, both in planning the work of the term and in giving it direction.

The general objective of fourth term English is to become better acquainted with real people in a world of actual events. In order to give a unifying purpose to the work of the students, I asked each to choose a special broad field of study, in which he would work in conjunction with other students

having similar interests. In the course of this study, I hoped the students would become involved in activities which would broaden and deepen their spheres of interest.

I proposed this group method of work with the object of giving the individual a chance to develop his fullest capacities through the aid and stimulation of his group. At the same time, I felt that the interests of each group could be communicated to the rest of the class by means of weekly group programs, and group magazines. Thus the group would have an added incentive in that it would present the results of its work to

the class, which would act as a receptive but critical audience.

This general plan I presented for discussion at the first meeting of the class. The students discussed it thoroughly during the next few meetings; they suggested the directions the activities might take, and the procedures for carrying them out. The result of the discussion was the following work-sheet, which was handed to each student:

WORK SHEET, ENGLISH 407 & 409 ACTIVITIES (INDIVIDUAL WORK)

I. Select a field in which you are interested from among the following: Art, Music, Science, Literature, Theatre, Social Reform, Adventure and Exploration, Vivid Historical Characters.

A. Form a group of about six students for each field of study.

B. Begin by reading a biography of a person prominent in the field you have chosen.

II. Keep a journal in which you make daily entries of explorations in your field of study.

A. Materials: newspapers, magazines, books (biographies, novels, dramas, letters, journals, essays, poetry, travel, geography, history, science, etc.), radio programs, speeches, interviews, visits and trips to places of interest for students in your field of work.

B. Form of journal entries.

1. Two-sentence summary of information gained (theme-sentence followed by one sentence developing the theme).

2. One paragraph commenting on the above.

III. Hand in, to the secretary of your group, a list of your activities for each week, which the secretary will enter on the group activity sheet.

A. Form of activity sheet entries: specific statement of activity: author, title, date, etc.

Model for art group

1. Read "N.Y. Times," Feb. 24, "Recent Exhibitions" by Jewell.

2. Write a play: scene from the life of Leonardo da Vinci.

ACTIVITIES (GROUP WORK)

I. Present a full-period group program at least once during the term. (The whole group must aid in perfecting the program, and must approve of every member's contribution.)

II. Gather material throughout the term for a group magazine, the best material to be used in compiling a class magazine at the end of the term. (Each member of the group is to submit at least five contributions for the group magazine: essays, stories, reviews, plays, poems, illustrations, inspired by

the work in the particular field of study.)

III. Hold weekly group meetings. (Each group elect the following leaders for the term:

Chairman of program committee to be responsible for group program.

Secretary to make entries on activity sheet of weekly activities of members of the group.

Editor to edit the group magazine.

Bibliographer to compile a bibliography of books and magazines recommended by members of the group in the field of their study.

A. Exchange books and material from class library and other sources.

B. Exchange ideas and suggestions.

C. Plan and rehearse group programs.

D. Select and revise material for group magazines.

E. Consult with teacher.

EVALUATION OF PRODUCT

1. Extent of utilization of all possible agencies in correlating English work with that of other departments in school; with radio programs, museums, etc.

II. Interests developed in chosen field of work.

III. Interest aroused in members of each group by activities of members of other groups.

IV. Quality of material submitted in each field of work—in journals, group programs, group magazines.

V. Initiative, coöperation, and sense of responsibility developed in individuals towards the group and the class.

Most of the class plunged into the work enthusiastically; some of the rugged individualists preferred to work alone and had to be educated to the group idea. One of the "good citizens," as the class named those who willingly coöperated in group work, wrote in her journal:

"I learnt that the class would be conducted differently from the regular classes. The pupils would be placed in groups, each one choosing his own group. During the term each group, consisting of about six students, would specialize in its field of work, but would also take part in the work of the other groups. It all sounds very interesting and exciting—something altogether new! From this type of work we hope to learn one of the most important things in life—how to act, think, and express ourselves clearly, so as to be able to work individually and with others."

DAILY CLASS PROCEDURE

Each lesson was opened with the reading of the minutes of the previous class meeting. Then fol-

lowed the exchange of material. Here the class as a whole offered to members of the various groups books, magazines, newspaper clippings, helpful to students in their chosen fields of work. They also suggested to each other plays, radio programs, museums, and other sources of information in each field. A student unsuccessful in finding material took this opportunity to ask his fellow-students for help and direction. Books from the class library dealing with his subject were offered to him by the class librarian. Members of his group brought him books and other material which they had found valuable.

After the exchange of material, any student who had discovered something interesting in his field, read to the class his journal entry in which he recorded it. This frequently evoked a lively class discussion, and a suggestion from the class that he present the material in an interesting form, or get more material on the subject, for his contribution to his group program or group magazine.

The remainder of the class period was devoted to the special work of the day: intensive reading of assigned passages for study of character, environment, or other topics connected with the work of the term ("Silas Marner" was used as a class text for this purpose); group meetings for discussion of group programs and group maga-

zines. All this activity of the week culminated in a full-period group program presented by a different group each Friday; and in the occasional reading to the class of the best contributions to the group magazines.

The forty-minute period was clearly not long enough for me to discover in what particular direction each student was heading; or to give him the aid which his fellow-students were incapable of supplying. However, by examining at intervals the entries recorded on the weekly activity sheets of every member of a group, I was able to follow up the progress of the students.

Perhaps I can give a clear idea of this plan in practice by quoting from the activity sheets of a few students:

ACTIVITY SHEET—THEATRE GROUP

Week III

Work done by Rose Harmon

1. Read "Peleas and Melisande," Maeterlinck.
2. Read "Allodine and Pallo-mide."
3. Finished "My Life and Some Letters"—P. Campbell.
4. Read "Woman's Home Companion" article on Catherine Cornell by Beranger.
5. Read Magazine "New York Woman" articles on Noel Coward and "Lloyds of London."
6. Saw moving picture "Rembrandt."

Week V

1. Read "Mary of Scotland" by Maxwell Anderson.
2. Read 100 pages of "Mary, Queen of Scotland and Isles," Zweig.
3. Read *New York Sun*, Mar. 5, Review of stage by Boehnel.
4. Saw play, "Taming of the Shrew," at Evander Childs.
5. Wrote dramatic review of "Taming of the Shrew."

ACTIVITY SHEET—SCIENCE GROUP

Week V

Work done by John McNichols

1. Read "Radio Builder's Manual."
2. Began constructing a radio.
3. Read *Popular Science and Mechanics Magazine*.
4. Visited Museum of Science and Industry.

Week VI

1. Have almost finished building radio.
2. Listened to "Pioneers of Science" on WHN.
3. Reading "Adventures under the Microscope" by Corrington.

On the basis of the activity sheets, I was able to discuss with a student the work he had done, as well as his plans for future activities. Moreover, the activity sheets enabled a student to compare his progress with that of his fellow group-members whose entries appeared on the same sheet as his.

It is in the execution of this aspect of the plan that I must confess my greatest disappointment. I found it impossible to consult individually with each of the forty students in my class frequently enough to give each a sense of security. I often felt, as the bell rang, that perhaps ten students, waiting for my help, or wishing to consult me concerning my comments on their activity sheets, had been turned away discouraged.

Occasionally, this difficulty was removed by the students' reading to the class their journal entries based on the activities in their special fields. Several of these entries, as I have explained above, were read and discussed during each period. The variety of the activities engaged in, as well as the developing interests of the students, may be judged from their journal entries, quotations from which follow:

Science Group

March 13, 1937

I've joined the Audubon Society. I have received material from them on the Bluebird, English Sparrow, Goldfinch, Barn Owl, and Snowy Egret. I have also received a picture of each bird. I shall submit these to our class Library.

April 10, 1937

Merciful Murdering

Now that the warm season is approaching, many people will re-

new their old hobby of catching insects.

I, for one, had never done this trick, as I could not bear to stick needles into insects' heads. However, after listening to a radio program on "Biology of Today," I have learnt ways of killing insects much more gently. They are the following: To kill a soft-bodied insect, place it in a jar of alcohol. If the insect you wish to kill has wings, which you do not want to harm, hold the upper part of its body, rather tightly for several minutes. But if the insect should be a beetle or grasshopper, place it in a jar of chloroform.

Now that I have told you more pleasant ways to do your "murdering," I hope you will find them practical and enjoyable.

Music Group

March 14, 1937

It was interesting to read the various reactions to music by great people and musicians given in "Magic of Music," a book by Robert Schauflier. Here are some short opinions:

"Music washes away from the soul the dust of everyday life."—Auerbach.

"Of all the fine arts, music is that which has the most influence on the passion, and which the legislator ought most to encourage."—Napoleon Buonaparte.

"It is music's lofty mission to

shed light on the depths of the human heart."—Schumann.

Discovery and Exploration Group

April 16, 1937

Victoria Nyanza is mentioned in the book "Safari" by Martin Johnson. After I had finished reading this book, I decided to write a poem based on something in the book. After starting several poems, I ended with:

VICTORIA FALLS

First

The swirling, rocky rapids

Then

A pause, a shudder,

The water plunges.

The roaring of the cataract

Stills

All other sounds

At Victoria.

Theatre Group

I wrote a letter to Burgess Meredith, who is acting in "High Tor," asking him to grant me an interview. It has been granted, and I shall interview him next week.

One class meeting each week was devoted to a discussion by the class of the material gathered as a result of individual activities. Here suggestions were given for the utilization of the material for group programs and group magazines.

The range of subjects can be gathered from some of the titles which appeared on the full-period group programs:

The Literature Group presented among the other things:

I. Review of MacLeish's "The Fall of the City," a radio play—with a comparison of various newspaper critics' reactions to this new type.

II. Idiosyncracies of Famous Authors.

The Music Group entertained the class with:

I. The Origin of Music.

II. Musical instruments — description, illustrations, and history—followed by a class recognition—test of instruments.

The Science Group Program made a broad appeal:

I. Origin of the Solar System.

II. Dinosaurs and other Fossils.

III. A Visit to the Museum of Science and Industry.

IV. Illustrated lecture on the Construction of an Automobile.

Some of the contributions to group programs, acclaimed by the class, were suggested for "perpetuation" in suitable form in the group magazines. Other magazine material was submitted after group and class discussion, and consultation with the teacher.

Of especial interest to me were the various literary forms used in the magazines. One boy in the Literature Group wrote an essay on imagery in poetry, a criticism of a verse drama, and ten original poems; a girl in the Social Reform Group wrote several short stories using slums and settlement houses

as her setting; another student, in the Theatre Group, became the class dramatic critic and wrote reviews of several Shakespearian plays she had seen during the term. There were also a number of original plays and personal essays written by each group. As an appendix to the group magazines, there appeared a bibliography of books read during the term by members of the group, and a list of technical terms which they felt everybody "must" know.

In order to evaluate this project, as an instrument for awakening interests and drawing pupils on to the exploration of new fields, I gave my pupils a special term examination. In this examination I asked them what new interests had been awakened in the course of the term through their own group work and that of other groups; what sources of information formerly unknown to them they had discovered. I should like to give excerpts from some of their answers to these questions:

"I am in the Literature Group, but have always been interested in art. As a result of following the work of the Art Group during the term, I have been inspired to start an Art Scrapbook. I have now over two hundred pictures by famous painters such as Millet, Gainsborough, Raphael, and Michaelangelo. These pictures I got by sending away for them, and by clipping them from magazines and news-

papers. I plan to keep this Art Scrapbook and add to it in the future. I am going to bring my book to school some day to show it to the class."

Another student in the Art Group gives his experience, in the following excerpt:

"With an interest in photography and the idea of improving my knowledge in the matter of taking pictures which would have real art value, I entered the Art Group. There, for a time, I completely forgot about photography, since I became interested in various other topics in the field of art. After reading many books and newspaper articles about nearly every type of art ranging from sculpture to oil painting, I felt that my interest in photography was revived by a certain magazine article I had read. Now I wished to go a step further and learn about the camera and its ingenious mechanism. From here I can only imagine the many interests this will take me to in the field of science. I have read the following books on the subject of photography:

George Eastman—Ackerman.

History of the Motion Picture—Lubshec.

Camera Clubs—by the Camera Clubs of the Chicago Park District.

Elementary Photography—Neblette, Brehm, and Priest.

Popular Science Monthly—section on photography.

"This Week" section of Sunday *New York Herald Tribune*.

The same boy continues his explorations:

"I have finished reading 'Digging in Yukatan' by Ann Morris. It is about a group of Archaeologists from the Carnegie Institute, who were looking for ruins and information of the Maya civilization. They found old temples and sacred buildings.

"I enjoyed the book since it showed me an entirely new subject of study in my field. This new subject is the beauty of ancient architecture. The author made the book even more interesting by relating wierd stories about the Maya ruins."

A girl in the Science Group writes:

"I have developed another interest this term. This interest is in social problems. In the "Explore Your Mind" column of the *New York Post*, the following question was asked, 'Should disputed public questions be discussed in schools so pupils can intelligently read the daily newspapers?' The answer of Professor Speer ran something like this: 'High School boys and girls are deprived of a vital part of their education if world problems are not discussed openly in class, with the teacher not as a judge, but as promere leader.' I agree with Professor Speer. This is my main reason for liking the English work this term."

One girl admits having joined the Theatre Group merely because she liked to act. But after reading the biographies of great actors she was eager to read the plays in which they had acted. She found a number of these in the book "Great Old English Plays."

A boy in the Adventure and Exploration Group enjoyed his visit to the Museum of Natural History more fully than he had on previous occasions as a result of his having read the lives of Akely, Perry, McAndrews and Beebe. The exhibits brought back to him "the exciting adventures unknown to all except those who had read the books of these explorers."

A member of the Art Group bought a Japanese block-print on exhibit at our school after having heard a talk on Japanese block-prints by one of the members of her group.

Another "interest" awakened quite naturally in many of the pupils was a sense of social responsibility,—the desire to be good citizens of the group and class of which they were members. This led, in one instance, to a dramatic scene of self-criticism in Class 407. The Theatre Group of this class, as well as that of Class 409, had promised to present to its class a dramatization of scenes from "Silas Marner." Group 407 failed to do so; Group 409 succeeded. The latter was invited to present its play to the class whose Theatre

Group had failed to fulfil its promise.

After the performance, the disgraced group publicly admitted its failure, and sent the following resolution to the other class:

"Whereas, we of Class 407 have failed in our efforts to produce a 'Silas Marner' program fit to be presented in class, and

"Whereas, you, of Class 409, have so graciously presented your program in our stead,

"Be it resolved, that we thank and congratulate you for your excellent performance of three scenes from 'Silas Marner'."

The sense of responsibility developed in many of the students, functioned to the end of the term, even after they knew that "the marks were in." They came to school early, and remained after school hours in order to edit their magazine, cut stencils for it, and mimeograph it.

In the development of this project with my Honor Classes for a year, I have frequently felt encouraged and inspired by the discovery of the limitless interests that can be aroused in pupils; their infinite capacities for enthusiasm, for work. I have observed the generous and intelligent response of pupils to situations arising in the classroom,—situations which, by this method of work, approximate life.

At the same time, I have become convinced that no such plan

for individualization in our teaching by discovering the best in each pupil and developing that best, can be realized to its fullest possibilities under conditions which exist in our high schools today.

The "compartmentalization" which keeps a student in one subject class with one teacher at a time when his activity demands his presence in another subject class or in a library, puts up barriers to the freedom of exploration, which only the sturdy can break down.

More serious still, the size of classes, as I have already explained, creates conditions where the individual rarely gets the encouragement and guidance of the teacher at the time he needs it.

This occasionally leads to a superficiality in the work,—to a mere engaging in activities for the sake of the activity without a real appreciation of its meaning. I have attempted to overcome this tendency by giving the students broad concepts which they might apply in a critical evaluation of their material. We have discussed such general topics as: imitation vs. creation of illusion in art; characterization in juvenile and in adult fiction; scientific thinking; "rehashing" vs. recreating; adopting a suitable literary form to a given content. The students have, on the whole, applied these concepts to their work with great clarity.

However, I must repeat that the task of the development of each individual pupil is made difficult and sometimes almost impossible by the sheer weight of the pupil-load. Examining activity sheets; reading journals and suggesting directions the work might take; reading and criticizing contributions for magazines; consulting those who have reached "plateaus",—all this requires more time than a teacher can give without losing occasionally that freshness and enthusiasm towards her work which this method demands.

Yet, in spite of the difficulties and occasional disappointments which have arisen in the execution of this plan, I feel that it has been a valuable experiment. Could the obstacle of excessive size of classes be removed, it seems to me that this, or any other plan of work which permits of the greatest student motivation and direction of activities under the guidance and help of the teacher, has unlimited educational possibilities. Moreover, I believe that its possibilities should not be limited to Honor Classes. It can, if keyed to the level of maturity of a given group of students, create well-adjusted human beings, functioning to their full capacities in a social group which makes the greatest demands upon each individual of which it is comprised.

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FACT VERSUS THEORY IN SCIENCE TEACHING*

The method that the scientist uses in solving problems in his own particular field is one that has undoubtedly borne fruit. The scientist, in considering his problems, can hardly be expected to advance very far towards their solutions unless, in relation to his science thinking at least, he has the habit of mind called the scientific attitude.

The scientific attitude might be described as a habit of mind which recognizes the likelihood of reaching invalid conclusions unless certain precautions are taken. Making up this scientific attitude, this habit of thinking, are three elements: first, a recognition of man's likelihood of arriving at invalid conclusions (invalid, that is, in view of the facts); second, an awareness of the causes, usually emotional, that operate to warp our judgments; third, the intellectual integrity or will power actually to counteract or eliminate the effect on our thinking of these deleterious causes.

Among the mental habits known to be inconsistent with the scientific attitude and, therefore, leading to erroneous conclusions, are: (1) inability to distinguish between fact and theory; (2) unwill-

ingness to hold suspended judgments until all the facts are at hand; (3) unwillingness to change opinion on the basis of evidence, the closed mind; (4) personal, religious and social prejudice; (5) superstitious beliefs; (6) no felt need for cause and effect relationships; (7) unwarranted desire to argue for argument's sake, primarily to advance the ego.

Of these I have elected to discuss the frequently overlooked or disregarded distinction between fact and theory. A fact (in science) is a very carefully made observation, many times repeated and checked by several skilled observers (scientists). (The word "checked" above has been used advisedly in preference to the word "verified" to avoid controversy regarding man's ability ever to know truth.) Briefly, the facts are the data the scientist records. Theories, of course, are merely assumptions which offer us more or less satisfactory explanations of observed phenomena.

Before one has given much thought to this matter, he is apt to regard it not, in itself, as unimportant but rather as not really

*Reprinted from *Science Education*, 21: No. 1, February, 1937.

worthy of much consideration because of the supposedly comparative ease with which one can recognize a fact or a theory as such. However, preliminary tests given at the Abraham Lincoln High School lead to the same tentative conclusions as those drawn by Davis¹. He states, "Many of the theories in science are being taught as facts by many of our best teachers. Teachers as well as pupils fail to distinguish clearly facts from theories." The far reaching importance and significance of this one point from the standpoint of science teaching and hence, as it affects all society, are ably presented in an article by Gruenberg.²

Having been made aware of the ease with which we accept and offer hypotheses as facts, I examined, for the first time critically, a typical, good textbook widely used in teaching elementary high school physics. My object was, of course, to determine to what extent fact and theory were confused; that is, to what extent hypotheses were offered as facts. I made two rather interesting discoveries, the first being the remarkable frequency with which this book presented an assumption as a fact, and the second, the ease with which I, time and again,

¹Davis, Ira C.: "The Measurement of Scientific Attitudes." *Science Education*, 19: 117-122; October, 1935.

²Gruenberg, B. C.: "Hypothesis and Doctrine in Science Teaching." *School and Society*, 37: 601; May 13, 1933.

accepted these hypotheses even at the very time I was writing specifically for this type of error. Parenthetically, it is well to note that other science textbooks, including those in use at colleges as well as in high schools, fall into the same pitfall with more or less the same frequency.

As intimated above, my method of procedure consisted in searching through the text, critically examining the hypotheses and explanations, and noting where theories and assumptions were either stated as facts or presented so as to imply that they were facts.

Not one of the quoted statements listed below is a statement of fact; each is an assumption or is based on some accepted working hypothesis. (Where the same statement appears several times in the book I have not repeated it.)

"In reality, no kind of matter can be subdivided beyond a certain point without losing its identity."

"No one has ever seen a molecule; these particles are so small that the best microscope fails to reveal them."

"By indirect methods it has been learned that one liter . . . of air contains 27×10^{21} molecules."

"The molecule is made up of atoms."

"We have learned that all matter is composed of very small particles called molecules, which

are in constant motion. As the velocity of the molecules of a body increases, its temperature rises."

In discussing the behavior of a gas as it is cooled below 0°C , the following statement is made:

"It continues to contract, losing $1/273$ of its volume for every degree that it is cooled below zero."

"When it dissolves in the water, a part of its molecules dissociate into ions. Each hydrogen ion (H^+) carries a positive charge of electricity and the sulfate ion ($\text{SO}_4^{=}$) is negatively charged."

"If we hold a negatively charged rod near the knob of an electroscope, the electrons are repelled and stream away from the knob to the leaves."

"The electrons streaming along a conductor form an electric current."

"The strength of the induced E.M.F. depends upon the number of lines cut per second. Experiment shows that 100,000,000 lines of force must be cut per second to produce an induced E.M.F. of one volt."

"The atoms of radium and other radio-active elements are exploding or disintegrating."

"In the laboratory the chemist builds up new molecules from atoms or rearranges the atoms in the molecule. By means

of the X-ray, scientists have studied the arrangement of the atoms in certain molecules. (See Fig. 2)."

Figure 2 shows alternate black and white spheres connected by lines and arranged to form a cube. The drawing is labeled,

"Structure of the molecule of common table salt."

"The atom has a nucleus made up of positively charged particles called protons. Some negatively charged particles are also present in the nucleus but there is always an excess of protons. Surrounding the nucleus and probably revolving around it in a manner similar to the revolution of the planets around the sun, there are extremely small particles, each carrying a charge of negative electricity. These particles are called electrons. The hydrogen atom is the lightest atom known, but the electron is only about $1/1840$ as heavy as the hydrogen atom."

Even so eminent a writer as James Kendall, in his 1926 revised and rewritten edition of "Smith's Inorganic Chemistry", while stressing the status of a hypothesis as an assumed state of affairs, nevertheless states that the accumulated evidence has verified the kinetic-molecular hypothesis beyond all possibility of doubt. This would mean that we know that all matter is composed of exceedingly minute discrete particles or molecules.

Eldridge in "The Physical Basis of Things", concludes that the reality of molecules has been demonstrated by experiments that are interpreted as actually measuring the sizes of molecules. Yet, he later in the same volume quotes the Davisson-Germer experiment as demonstrating the wave nature of the molecule (and of the electron).

During the fall term 1933-1934, at the request of the Chemistry Teachers' Club of New York, Professor J. A. Babor of the College of the City of New York gave a brief survey chemistry course to a group of interested high school teachers. My lecture notes include his statement that a saturated solution of mercuric sulfide has, by calculation from the solubility product, less than one molecule per liter.

Science advances through its theories,—but once a postulate is confused with a fact, it is my feeling that the result is analogous to a paralysis of the thinking process. The confusion automatically shuts off the searching for a more satisfactory theory—one that may be nearer the truth and may therefore hasten the progress of science.

The following quotations are obviously incompatible with the widely accepted theory of relativity. Certainly, they should not be offered as facts.

"Matter is indestructible."

"Hence the total quantity of matter in the universe is the same today as yesterday. The fact that matter cannot be created or destroyed is usually called the law of the conservation of matter."

"An iron rod contains the same quantity of matter anywhere on the earth or 1000 miles above the earth; its mass is constant."

"Like matter itself, energy can neither be created nor destroyed. There is the same amount of energy in the universe today that there was yesterday and the amount will be unchanged tomorrow. These facts show why the output of a machine can never exceed the input. A perpetual motion machine is utterly impossible."

"The fact that energy may be transformed or transferred but cannot be destroyed, is known as the law of conservation of energy."

"Everyone knows that the earth exerts an attractive force that tends to pull all objects toward it."

"Sir Isaac Newton called attention to the facts that gravitation is universal and that bodies have a mutual attraction."

"This force of mutual attraction depends upon two things:—"

"The weight of a body is really a measure of the earth's attraction for that body."

(For an excellent review of the various theories of gravitation from Aristotle to Einstein, see P. R. Heyl's articles.³)

After reading the preceding quotations the reader, though perhaps agreeing with me in theory, may still object in practice on the grounds of time and space limitation. To avoid such statements, he may say, it would be necessary for teachers and for textbook writers to devote an unwarranted amount of time and space in explaining and qualifying each such statement. The flow of thought would be unduly interrupted. The pupils would have practically nothing definite to cling to. If we were to stop to point out clearly each time we were using assumptions and not facts, the teacher may finally urge, we would never put across our subject matter.

I agree that by offering such concise statements as I have quoted, rather than qualified statements, it is easier to teach the topics in the syllabus. It is also easier for the

³Heyl, Paul R.: "Old and New Ideas Regarding Gravitation", *Jour. Chem. Ed.*, November, 1932, Vol. IX, No. 11, p. 1897.

pupils to follow such explanations and learn them, and much more satisfying to our pupils to accept such explanations as the truth rather than as tentative working hypotheses. Nevertheless, if the teachers, the textbook writers and the pupils take that less arduous path, the teachers are not imparting the scientific attitude and the pupils are most likely not acquiring it.

We teach pupils physics or chemistry, if we agree with the writers of the N. Y. State Syllabi in these subjects, in order to attain certain objectives. Chief among these should be "habits useful in life, and not habits limited to application in further study of a particular science."

"Most important of all, the pupil should be started along the road to a scientific habit of mind, with fearless inspection of data and conclusions, and with the development of intellectual honesty and love of truth that will carry over into his future judgments in all subjects of life."

Are we starting our pupils along this desirable path while in our very science teaching we continue to indoctrinate?

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CHARACTER BUILDING AND THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

I think I can take it for granted that the character we do not want is that presented by delinquents or by criminals. If we had some light on the processes involved in criminalism or delinquency we should have a pretty good idea of the normal character. It is in fact quite an old story that mental pathology has contributed enormously to normal psychology.

What is the outstanding phenomenon about criminals? A fact so simple that in the welter of studies it has not been sufficiently stressed. The criminal does not work—a negative phenomenon. This negative fact is in closest connection with a positive one—with criminality; the positive one substitutes for the negative fact. It is a general law in normal mental life that a negative deficiency is always replaced by a positive phenomenon. This is an indication of mental health—of reactivity. Perhaps it is the psychological equivalent of nature's abhorrence of a vacuum. In short, the criminal commits crime because he does not work. This simple but essential law has not been sufficiently emphasized.

Work then is a most essential feature of good character. Its dis-

appearance favors the appearance of a serious social disease: criminality.

Lack of work prevents the formation of desirable character. How can the classroom teacher build character? By teaching pupils to work. Work is the greatest medicine for delinquent tendencies, for neurotic phenomena; even in the psychoses it has proved its value.

But to teach children to work we must understand this phenomenon.

Work is perhaps the most fundamental psychological phenomenon governing our occidental civilization. All our time is taken up by working. A lack of work as in the last years is a major psychological disaster. It is a fundamental part of our make-up, of our inheritance. Work for the adult is natural; it is idleness that is abnormal. There is a subtle but essential difference between the man who works in his profession and the one who plays at it. It is the difference between the professional actor and the amateur. The life of the professional depends on it—and I don't mean his bread and butter only. And here we come to something fundamental—his entire personality is

taken up by it, all his ego impulses. This complete absorption of his personality by his work is the product of a slow evolution. It is the product of a series of successes.

Goethe once said, "Success is a habit." It is a profound truth. He meant by that that the individual is going to sublimate and bend all his energies to a given goal to attain it. His life will attain a unity, a direction, a stability. Is not that one of the fundamentals of desirable character?

Some may feel that I have indulged in too much theory. A clear understandable theory is necessary. Otherwise we are impotently subjected to successive fads in education. A few years ago it was "interest." If children could play ball because of interest, they could learn algebra in the same way. Nowadays one hears little of the interest theory. Why? Because its limitations were not considered. When a prominent educator was asked what interest was, he said that was a theoretical question.

If you agree with me up to now, you can readily see that to teach character *directly* is an impossibility. Character, having work as its foundation, requires the constant inculcation of work habits in all activities . . . the development of the "instinct" of workmanship; the attachment of the entire personality to a given task, so that

the heavily charged tendencies of pride, social prestige; curiosity will be drained towards its accomplishment. It means the insistence on thoroughness, the discouragement of purely verbal facility and fluency. As the child passes from elementary school to high school and college, the more abstract tendencies will become strengthened, so that the intellectual pursuits will in themselves be powerful enough to keep him to his task. Above all we must remember that real success must accompany these pursuits.

In a word, the daily tasks accomplished in a workmanlike manner, offer the classroom teacher the greatest opportunity to develop good work habits and therewith character possessing will and direction.

The selection of daily tasks, however, presents problems. At present, we know much too little of the psychology of work. One major point is certain. The selection of the task must be within the present abilities of the pupil. A strong probability of success must be present. Of course, this requires a degree of knowledge of the pupil that is not easy to attain. It is for this reason that the question of keeping classes with one teacher for a year should be re-examined. I should like to rewrite the 19th century pleasure-pain principle in terms of the success motif. Man seeks success and

avoids failure. Of course, by this I want to take into account subjective standards of success too. No organism can tolerate subjective and objective failure for a long time. Nor can our pupils. It is this dominating success motif that the class teacher must consciously consider in conducting his class. It is no doubt the clue to great leadership—the leader who permits his assistants to participate in his victories.

It is quite evident that intellectual ability is a potent factor in this problem. We cannot expect to develop the instinct of workmanship by giving a dull pupil the Odyssey to wrestle with. The intellectual factor has been so often considered that I shall pass on to a less well known factor in this problem—temperament. A fascinating subject. Again little known, but one with which we are instinctively acquainted. I should like to suggest a somewhat behavioristic interpretation. By temperament we usually imply not what a person does, but how he does it. It is these different nuances of doing or saying the same thing, the addition of a psychological spicing that is a very fundamental factor in determining the individual coloration of the personality. We see its importance negatively in some psychiatric patients who present a colorless monotony.

One of the elements of tempera-

ment is rhythm. Sometimes I feel that it is congenital. And it is something so fundamental that one should pause before tampering with it. I am sure you know the child who loves to dawdle while undressing; who remains on the edge of the bed with one shoe on and one off. I am not quite in agreement with those "scientific" statistical pedagogues, who should like to upset this particular rhythm for the sake of an only apparent efficiency. On the other hand there is the accelerative type, the one who is always stepping on the gas; whose words tumble out in a cascade,

I like to think that the teacher should be sensitive to the individual rhythm of his children. Those who are not instinctively so, can become so through a conscious effort; through observation and self-training.

There are of course many other factors. I should like to merely indicate one—how long should the time span be, between the setting of the task and its possible successful completion—consider this in relation to age—to mental level—to individual rhythm.

May I end with a general question; is good character not an inherent component of the normal personality; do we have to build it—or shall we avoid hurting it?

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THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUPIL PERSONALITY

In recent years there has been a shifting of the emphasis in education from the acquisition of skills and learnings, to the interests and purposes of the learners. We have come a long way from the sort of school most of us attended, which could say to its students:

"Here are our subjects of education, taught by time honored methods; if you cannot succeed in them, we are sorry, but there is nothing we can do for you, so you would best try something else, and elsewhere."¹

We have seen a development of numerous new techniques and procedures all emphasizing the importance of purposeful activity, the interests of pupils, individual differences; the project plan, the unit-assignment, the core curriculum and all the bewildering (and sometimes contradictory) aspects of the Progressive Movement which may be included under the general title of the "Freedom Theory" in education. We seem to have had an abundance of cure-alls, but a disappointingly small number of cures. Is there no guiding principle in this confusion that will

¹Bagley, W. C.: Education and Emergent Man.

aid us in adapting subject matter to provide maximum opportunities for wholesome growth without neglecting entirely the values inherent in "systematic and sequential learning?" Do schools exist to teach children or to teach subjects? To teach children, of course, say the Progressives, rejecting the disciplinary ideal, both in mind and in morals, along with all prearranged programs, assigned tasks and activities imposed from without. But would not a better answer be that schools exist to teach both—the child and the subject? Of course a child's interests must be utilized in his training, but consideration for the natural impulses of a child does not mean letting him do always and everywhere whatever his interests, desires and felt needs may drive him to. Can a child be trusted, unaided, to direct his activities along the most profitable lines?

There are many different kinds of learnings, and all of them are valuable. Some may be achieved by playful doing and others only by arduous, concentrated doing, *and the two should not be confused.* "The fundamental fallacy of the Progressive Movement is its assumption that work and play

may be identified under the same psychological rubric. Without systematic and sequential effort the majority of learners seem obstinately not to learn."² We should examine with caution an educational philosophy that makes the child's natural instincts and spontaneous purposes the cornerstone of its educational system. Since we cannot change the world overnight, perhaps we can find a common meeting ground for the "Freedom" and "Disciplinary" schools by saying that within a scheme of discipline outlined by his elders, the child learns more readily if the method is one of coöperation rather than compulsion. "Until the world has been made perfect, and parents, neighbors and teachers alike have been converted into a band of coöperative, nimble-witted, and eloquent saints, discipline and restraint will continue to be used as a helpful device in child training."³

What are the characteristics that make up what we call personality? Heredity and environment both play important parts, but growth is no longer considered a simple function neatly determined by x units of inheritance plus y units of environment. It is a complex process of constant transformation

²Bagley, W. C.: Education, Crime and Social Progress.

³Jersild, A. T.: Child Psychology. (I have substituted for the words 'corporal punishment' in the original, the words *discipline* and *restraint*).

and reconstruction rather than a drama controlled by two forces. An individual's personality is the result of the interaction and interplay of heredity and environment; it is therefore dynamic and not static. "The wealth of detail in the dynamic pattern we call personality is determined and defined by experience; the pattern itself is almost entirely fabricated by social conditions."⁴ Native endowment is an important factor setting the "metes and bounds" for development and growth, but in actual fact the limits are rarely reached for most of us. "Every creature has many inheritances; which one shall be realized depends on the conditions under which it develops. But man is the creature that has the greatest number of possible heritages. It is not true that what an organism shall become is determined when he gets his supply of chemicals or genes in the germ cells, as the popular writers on eugenics would have us believe. The same set of genes may produce many different results depending on the conditions under which it operates."⁵ "The old notion of the fixity of the genes is due for revision."⁶

Personality may be and is shaped, moulded and directed by

⁴Gesell, Arnold: Infancy and Human Growth.

⁵Jennings, H. S.: Prometheus or Biology and the Advancement of Man.

⁶McGraw, M. B.: Growth: A Study of Johnny and Jimmy.

the individual's environment. The school, as one of the factors in that environment must be prepared to play an important part, but it would be fatal for the school to assume the duties of the other factors, the home, the church and the community. May it not be true that some of the feeling of drifting, of lack of direction and purpose, of discouragement and disappointment in education today is due to the over enthusiastic assumption of duties and responsibilities that never should have been considered within the scope of the school? The school, it seems to me, has two important functions; to provide the formal education the best experience of the race considers most worth while, and to determine the individual's ability to get along happily in the world. It is possible that in the past, we have been stressing the first and neglecting the importance of a well-adjusted personality. A well-developed, integrated, adjusted personality will involve three aspects:

1. Adjustment to the social environment
2. Adjustment to one's own limitations
3. Adjustment to authority

In this three-fold adjustment, our attitudes and habits, colored by our feelings and emotions, will play an important part. We may all agree that action based on reflective thought is the highest and

most ideal type, but in actual practice, we act as our feelings and habits compel us to, much more frequently than most of us care to admit. "Our intellect is a speck on a sea of emotion."

As teachers in secondary schools we should keep ourselves constantly aware of the importance of the period of adolescence. Unfortunately it is exceedingly difficult for the adult to recall with any degree of accuracy, his own youth and his own troubles. But it is during this period of stress and strain that the boy or girl more than ever is in need of an abundance of sympathy and understanding. "However bumptious, inconsistent and irritating youth may be, it must first of all be understood. It seeks, demands and needs sympathy more than anything else in the world. No person can be so lonely as an adolescent who feels that nobody understands and appreciates him."⁷ During the early years of adolescence, all traits are apt to be exaggerated; at one moment a boy or girl may be shiftless, lazy or blue, at another, consumed with energy and enthusiasm. It is wrong to accuse a child of fickleness. Self-consistency and steadiness of purpose are not traits of adolescence however desirable it may be to cultivate them. Another characteristic of this period is the urge which develops in

⁷Thomas H. Briggs: Secondary Education.

every human being between twelve and twenty to get away from supervision and control and to learn to become an adult person. The wise teacher will make due allowance for this urge, realizing that it is part of the growth cycle and must be carefully guided.

The teachers's own personality will be a powerful factor in the development of a wholesome personality among her pupils. The great English Public Schools are an excellent illustration of the power of the teacher's personal influence in building up desirable attitudes among students. Their curricula and methods may be far behind ours, but they far surpass us in their contribution to what the English consider good citizenship—perhaps largely because of the careful selection of masters who can best inculcate by example and manner the traditions of an English gentleman. We can learn a great deal from English practice in this respect without having to accept the "traditions of an English gentleman" as the attitudes we consider most desirable.

Before a teacher can exert a desirable influence on the development of the personality of his pupils, he must first of all, be himself a well integrated person who has faced the problems of his own personality and from them has gained an understanding and insight into the problems of others. We all know that pupils will imi-

tate the good and bad habits of teachers; that the nervous teacher is apt to make his class nervous; that the calm, restful teacher will generally have a quiet and orderly class. Is it too much to say that the teacher who hopes to exert a favorable influence must first win the respect, admiration or affection of his pupils? If we hope to build favorable attitudes, we must like children and be liked by them. "Let not the sour-faced teach morals lest they create a distaste for virtue." This may be repeating homely truths which we all agree on and accept, but are we sure that there can be no room for improvement along this line? Are not the teacher's own emotional problems sometimes reflected in the classroom? Have we not the fussy, worried teacher for whom the slightest infractions or episodes assume the proportions of a catastrophe—the teacher who too jealously protects his authority—the teacher who is inclined to look upon his pupils as his natural enemies—the teacher who lacks a sense of humor and forgets that a good, hearty laugh is a most wholesome means of removing unfortunate inhibitions and of establishing a healthy classroom morale?

It may be that the profession itself imposes a repressed mode of life so that the integration of our own personality must always be more difficult than it is for

others. Perhaps teaching like other occupations and professions has an occupational disease of its own, which for want of a better name may be called "schoolmarmitis". The symptoms appear to be a magnified awareness of oneself as the sole dispenser of knowledge and wisdom, not only to children, but on occasion to their parents and to the public in general. If not checked, it may develop in certain educators a superiority feeling which sometimes attains the force of a Messianic complex, particularly when it is found in high places, such as the recent convention of prominent educators.

Wickman in his study "Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes" notes that teachers list most frequently whispering and inattention as problem behavior. Would it not be of value for the school to change its emphasis and to say that if a large proportion of children whisper, it is normal for them to do so to some extent, and to make allowance for it? Much of the behavior teachers complain of is thought to be serious, not because it is dangerous to the welfare of the child, but because it is noisy, disorderly and irritating to the comfort and dignity of the adults. The pupil who is aggressive and disturbing is considered to be a problem, while the child who is quiet and amenable to discipline, is looked upon graciously. The psychiatric view-

point, however, is radically different—withdrawal, timidity, and dependency are graver symptoms than misbehavior. Active rebellion on the part of the children is likely to indicate a better state of mental health than a retreat from overt expression with its shut-in personality. The timid, shy, self-conscious youngster unable to make friends, although rarely causing trouble in school is sometimes a more serious problem. It is very difficult for the teacher to believe that such a child needs help because he appears to be a model pupil, with his exaggerated conscientiousness, his desire to conform to all rules and regulations and his careful and often superior work in school.

What shall be our attitude toward the child who in spite of our differentiated curricula and our adjustment courses still persists in failing? How much value is there in adjustment courses that continue to yield a high rate of failure? This is not a plea for one hundred per cent promotion or for a lowering of standards, but rather for a revaluation of standards. Failure in some lines at certain times is frequently desirable—but failure in everything is disastrous and is likely to develop unsound and thwarted attitudes. It should be the teacher's business to insure that every child at some time in some way achieve a marked success, and that each child at some

time in some way achieve a marked success, and that each child at some time get an honest gauge of himself by failure. May it not be true, that our own teaching is a failure when we fail to provide the normal child with a reasonable chance of success within the range of his own ability?

The problems and implications raised in this paper have no simple and infallible prescriptions for their solution, but perhaps the following suggestions and cautions may prove useful:

What are the opportunities for us as teachers to build up attitudes that will help in integrating personality?

1. We can establish an emotional atmosphere in the classroom through the quality of our own example, that will encourage desirable personality patterns.
2. We will be prepared to withstand the shocks of disobedience, defiance and misbehavior, realizing that the most difficult and unlikeable child is the very one most desperately in need of our understanding and help.
3. We will build up a sense of self-respect, invaluable in later life by making every pupil feel secure, confident of our interest, and certain that we shall be consistently fair.

4. We will not hesitate to break ordinary rules and change usual procedures when dealing with special cases, even though some may label it "pampering" and exalting the needs of a single individual.

In conclusion, a word or two of caution and assurance for those of us who may have been overly impressed by reading of the dangers of inhibiting the child with its resultant complexes and repressions in later life, "the nervous system manifests a high degree of autonomy in paradoxical union with a high degree of impressionability. It is remarkably resistant to adversity. It withstands much deprivation. It tends to grow in obedience to inborn determiners, whether saddled with handicap or favored with opportunity. It possesses an hereditary ballast which conserves and stabilizes the growth of each individual." If this ballast did not exist, "the child's mind, his spirit, his personality, would fall a ready prey to disease, to starvation, to malnutrition, and worst of all to misguided management. As it is, this inborn tendency toward optimum development is so inveterate that the child benefits liberally from what is good in our practice, and suffers less than he logically should from our unenlightenment."⁸

⁸Gesell, Arnold: *Infancy and Human Growth*.

"A great deal has been said of the teacher's role in the field of mental hygiene. It goes without saying that a teacher has an obligation to cultivate a cheerful attitude; to keep out of the classroom his private troubles and worries, so that even if he has cause for gloom, no one else need be aware of it. But a great deal of nonsense has been written about a well-adjusted personality with the implications that one risks a maladjustment of personality if one does anything that one does

not wish to do. We should remember that one test of a well-adjusted personality, is the willingness to do tasks that are necessary but disagreeable, and to do them, if not joyfully, at least without making too great a fuss about it. This seems to be good common sense, it is apparently good Psychology and we trust that it is good Psychiatry."⁹

HECTOR LAGUARDIA.
Bryant High School.

⁹Bagley, W. C.: Education and Emergent Man.

THE ASSEMBLY PERIOD*

VALUE

In the regular high school program, well planned assemblies offer an opportunity for educational benefits of great value. They not only familiarize the student with matters of school routine, extra-curricular activities and the content of elective course, (since they give an opportunity for the work of various departments to be shown to the whole school) but they enlarge the child's fund of general information in an interesting way, through speakers who represent the business and professional worlds.

Their cultural value cannot be

*This article was originally presented as a report on "The Annex Assembly" at a meeting of the Association of Heads of Annexes.

overestimated. They create and increase an interest in dramatics and afford an invaluable opportunity to engender a love for fine music. They serve to guide and develop the students' taste in the type of recreation he will seek in later life.

By far the greatest merit of assemblies other than that they can in great measure establish the tone of the school, lies in the opportunity they offer students for self activity, as an outlet for creative work and for development of student leaders.

SCHEDULE

With the short time available for this feature of school life, how may assemblies be conducted most efficiently?

The general practice is to have one assembly each week, varying in length from thirty minutes to an hour and scheduled when possible at the beginning of the day.

In most cases it is impossible to schedule all students to the assembly period at one time and so plans must be made not only for incorporating the assembly period into the time schedule, but also for providing a program for those who are not attending the assembly.

The extra period may be obtained by shortening all periods a few minutes on assembly day, by extending the session, or by omitting a different subject each time.

Such variations may be made as best suit the teacher in charge.

The Assembly Directions of the Haaren High School Aviation Annex illustrate how the last named method is put into practice.

DIRECTIONS FOR ASSEMBLY

1. There will be one Assembly every WEDNESDAY morning during the first period.
2. For assembly purposes the school will be divided into four groups as follows:

Group I—First period, Shop and Drawing classes.

Group II—First period, Theory, Health Education, History and Hygiene.

Group III—First period, Mathematics and English.

Group IV—First period, Science and Study Hall classes.

3. Boys will go to the assembly on days their groups are scheduled for assembly immediately after the official class period. The groups not scheduled for assembly will go to their first period recitations. After assembly all boys will go to their second period recitations.

In this programming, students who are not at the assembly are in a regular recitation class.

In most schools, however, those who do not attend the assembly on a certain day spend the time in the official home room. The home room period may be used for study, for grade adviser work, for student welfare work, for coaching slow students, for presentation of home room entertainments or projects, or for programs which parallel the assembly program. This type of correlation is well illustrated by samples from a term's program at the Walton High School Annex.

	ASSEMBLY	HOME ROOM
March 21	Modern Foreign Language Program	Why study French or German?
March 28	Social Science Program	The importance of the Social Studies
April 18	Mathematics Programs	The Values of Mathematics
May 2	Accounting Program	Why Study Accounting and Law?
May 9	Art Program	The Value of Art in Our Culture
May 23	Dramatics	Famous Women in Literature
June 6	Glee Club	How to Enjoy Good Music

The teacher who is in charge of the program for the day may send mimeographed suggestions to the home room or may train students to lead the program in each home room.

It is interesting to note that it is the general practice to hold mixed assemblies and not separate ones for boys and girls. Where separate assemblies have been tried, as an experiment, it was found that nothing was gained, (except in a special case for a girls' fashion show) and that the group singing was very poor as compared with the singing of the mixed group. If pupils are together every other period in the week it seems rather absurd to segregate them during this one period.

CONDUCT

Whether assemblies should be conducted formally, with rather

rigid discipline and teacher supervision or as informal meetings is a matter of opinion.

Where conditions are favorable the informal assembly provides an opportunity for the development of student self-control and when assemblies are considered periods of entertainment the informal entrance is the adult method.

A formal entrance makes the assembly seem of more importance to the students, lends a feeling of dignity to the period, and when seating large numbers, saves time. It also tends to promote courtesy to the speaker and is a drill most youngsters need to prepare them for attendance at places of public assemblage.

An ideal combination would include the dignity inherent in the formal method, tempered by the freedom of the informal method to achieve the training for in-

telligent polite attendance at any large public gathering. Whether formal or informal, the assembly affords an unexcelled opportunity for student development through participation. No matter what its form, mass singing, the presentation of plays and musical entertainment, the delivery of announcements, student chairmanship, class programs, orchestra or glee club, the more student participation the better. Here is an opportunity to overcome bashfulness, develop thoughtfulness for others, inculcate a feeling of good sportsmanship, develop poise and for the exceptional students a chance to grow in leadership.

CONTENT

To be of most benefit, programs should be planned well in advance, subject to change if need arise. This will prevent last minute, disjointed programs which will bore the students and annoy the teachers. A sequence of programs planned for an entire term is most successful in overcoming that panicky last minute "What shall I do for the assembly?"

Who shall prepare these programs? Practice varies. The actual program may be under the direction of different departments on different days, or the Speech department may plan all programs calling on other departments to assist, or each home room may

prepare a program, but it is the ultimate responsibility of the principal to see that the programs are effective and that they do not become a burden on any one teacher or department.

The contents are to some extent prescribed. The By-Laws, (Sec. 67 Art. 32) read: "The regular assemblies of all schools shall be opened by reading to the pupils a portion of the Bible without comment." Books such as "Bible Readings"—Thomas & Espenstrade (Item No. 3804) and "Selections from the Bible"—John Wight, will furnish many appropriate selections which are brief and yet meaningful. It is interesting to try to have the Bible Reading supplement the program for the day—viz: on the day nominees for student offices are presented what more fitting than Proverbs Ch. XXVII, "Let another man praise thee and not thine own mouth, a stranger and not thine own lips."

Students will listen most attentively and with very keen appreciation when this plan is carried out. At one school the Twenty Third (23rd) Psalm is read at every assembly. Beautiful as it is, there are so many other appropriate selections that it seems we should give the students a taste of as many examples as possible of beautiful literature.

The patriotic part of the program is also established in the

By-Laws. Sec. 67 Art. 33 reads as follows: "At all assemblies one or more patriotic songs shall be sung. At least once a week assembly exercises shall include recitations or other exercises of a patriotic nature, a salute to the national flag, and the singing of one or more stanzas of the Star Spangled Banner by teachers and pupils."

It might be supposed that these preliminaries consume too much time. As a matter of fact they last only six or seven minutes and are most valuable, for thru their demands for silence, attention, good posture and dignity they insure a pleasant and appreciative audience for what is to follow. Most people no doubt will agree with the Annex head who wrote "I should not like to dispense with these time honored customs. There is little enough opportunity for teaching the proper respect and manner towards the flag and national anthem."

- I. *Man in the Making*
The Dawn of Civilization
Travel and Communication
Business and Finance
Science and Invention
Politics and Power
Literature and Art
- Bushwick
Annex
No. 75

- II. *"Music for Enjoyment" Assemblies*
Girls'
Commercial
Annex
- A series of programs for an entire term.

There is no end to the variety of material that may be offered for the main part of the program. A few suggestions are here listed.

Assemblies featuring:

College Preparation	Thrift
Crime Prevention	Personality
Debates	Plays
Departments	Poetry Contest
Fashion Show	Prize Speaking
Guidance	Contest
Health Education	Safety Drive
Music Appreciation	Scholarship
	School Publications
	Song Contest
	Travel Talk

Special Day (Thanksgiving, Christmas)

Further variation may be obtained where a radio, a stereoptican, a motion picture, or a phonograph are available.

Outlines of assembly programs for an entire term serve to illustrate the variety obtainable.

III.

New
Utrecht
Annex No. 192

Miscellaneous Term Program

Welcome
G. O. Candidates
Illustrated Lecture—Museum of City of N. Y.
Illustrated Lecture—Our National Parks
Armistice Day—Teachers' Union Auxiliary
Speaker
Treasure Island—Marionette Show—Dept. of Public Welfare
Motion Picture—Health—Metropolitan Life Insurance Company
Guest Speakers—Principal of School and Head of another Annex
Demonstration—Liquid Air—Chemistry Department
Speaker—New York Times
Illustrated Lecture—Poisons and Drugs—College of Pharmacy
Music Program
Dramatic Society
Health Education Program
Awards

A term program similar to Number III has the advantage that the student programs are held during the last month of the term, thus giving ample time for preparation, and serving as a goal for club activities during the entire term. The programs at the beginning of the term are interesting, varied and afford an opportunity to meet outsiders.

The programs which follow are examples of how separate items in the term program may be developed.

- I. *"Songs of the Nations"*
Haaren
High School
Technical
Annex
1. Russian Overture—On the Volga—Ivan Akimenko
Orchestra
 2. Go Down Moses (Spiritual)
Santa Lucia (Neapolitan Boat Song)
Quartet
 3. Spanish Serenade—La Bella Zingana—Roberto
Orchestra

II.

Bryant
High School
General
Annex

4. Old Folks at Home—Stephen C. Foster
Auld Lang Syne (Scotch Air)
Quartet
5. Rondo—for Violin and Piano—Beethoven
6. Dark Eyes—Vocal Solo—(Russian) Oskar
Strock.
7. Hungarian Overture—Attila—Gondor
Karoly
Orchestra

Poetry Contest

1. Bible Selection
2. Hymn—O, Worship the King—School
3. Introduction to Poetry Contest
4. Introduction to Judges
5. Poetry Reading
Sir Patrick Spens—Scotch Ballad
John of Tours—French Ballad
6. Song—Come le Rose
7. Poetry Reading
The Lord of Butrage—Spanish Ballad
8. Song—Juanita—Girls' Chorus
9. Poetry Reading
The Erl King—German Ballad
Stefan of Moldavia—Roumanian
Ballad
10. Songs—A Warrior Bold
11. Poetry Reading
Good King Wenceslas—English
Ballad
Zebra Dun—American Ballad
12. Songs
La Cucaracha
Adios, Muchachos
13. Awarding of Prizes
14. Star Spangled Banner and Salute the Flag.

III.

New Utrecht
High School
Annex 192

Girl's Health Education Awards Assembly

1. Russian Dance—Seven Handkerchiefs,
Chalif
2. Irish Tap
3. Italian Dance—Rose of Italy by Chalif
4. Mazurka Caprice
5. Irish Tap

6. Trio Mazurka
7. Presentation of Awards

- (a) Goal Shooting Contest
Basket Ball Song
- (b) Basket Ball Clubs
Grade Four (4) Song
Grade Three (3) Song
- (c) Handball Club
Cheer—Grade Four (4)
Cheer—Grade Three (3)
- (d) Dancing Club
Dancing Club Song
- (e) Tennis Club
Tennis Club Song
- (f) Baseball Intra-Mural Tournament
Locomotive Cheer
- (g) Chevrons
- (h) All Round Medals

8. School Song

COÖPERATING AGENCIES

The organizations listed here will be glad to coöperate in providing speakers or illustrative material for assemblies.

American Institute, Speakers' Bureau.....	60 East 42nd St.
American Museum of Natural History.....	77th St. and Central Park West
Bordens Milk Products Company.....	110 Hudson St.
Brooklyn Botanic Gardens.....	1000 Washington Ave., Brooklyn
Brooklyn Health Council.....	1313 Bedford Ave., Brooklyn
Bureau of Visual Instructions, Board of Education.....	500 Park Ave.
Castle Films.....	R.C.A. Bldg., Rockefeller Centre
College of Pharmacy.....	13 West 68th St.
Coward Shoe Company.....	270 Greenwich St.
Crime Prevention Bureau.....	240 Centre St.
Department Stores	
Drama Department—Work Division of the Dept. of Public Welfare,	111—8th Ave.
Ethical Culture School.....	Central Park West and 63rd St.
Girl Scouts, Inc.....	570 Lexington Ave.
Gregg Publishing Company.....	270 Madison Ave.
King Cole's Entertainment Service.....	203 E. 26th St.
Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.....	1 Madison Ave.

Metropolitan Museum of Art.....	5th Ave. and 82nd St.
Museum of the City of New York.....	5th Ave. and 103rd St.
Musicians Emergency Fund.....	113 West 57th St.
National Child Labor Company.....	215—4th Ave.
New York Public Library.....	5th Ave. and 42nd St.
New York Telephone Company.....	140 West St.
New York Times	Times Square
New York University—Speakers Bureau.....	Washington Square
New York Women's League for Animals, Inc.....	350 Lafayette St.
New York Zoological Society.....	185th St. and Southern Blvd.
Pace Institute.....	225 Broadway
Police Department.....	240 Centre St.
Sheffield Farms Company.....	524 West 57th St.
Steamship and Railroad Companies	
Teachers Union Auxiliary.....	70 Fifth Avenue
Tourists Information Bureaus	
Tuberculosis and Health Association.....	293 Schermerhorn St., B'klyn
Typewriting Companies	
Western Union Telegraph Company.....	60 Hudson St.
Y. M. C. A. Film Service.....	45th St. and Madison Ave.

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HOW CAN THE TEACHER BECOME A FORCE FOR GOOD GOVERNMENT?

To paraphrase a remark of William Penn,—syllabi, teaching techniques, texts, and young students are like the hands of a clock; they take the direction which teachers give them. In spite of all the efforts of the child-centered school of educational thought, the teacher still occupies a dominant position in the classroom, in the club, in the assembly, in the lunch-room, in the playground. For good or evil, consciously or unconsciously, he exerts tremendous influence upon the youngsters he comes into contact with. It is for this reason that the chairman of this panel has seen fit to allot some time to a characterization of the teacher who would be a force for good government. Let us examine some of his qualities.

First, as regards personality. It must be a well-adjusted, well-balanced, sympathetic personality. Just as an unbalanced judge has difficulty in interpreting justice to counsel and litigants, so a teacher with a temperament lacking in social mindedness has great difficulty in training pupils in the art of government, in the appreciation of the process of democratic coöperation. The teacher who treats the child as an inferior, who does not give the child respect and consideration is not training citizens for a democracy, but is creating the slaves of a future despotism. The teacher who is moved by affection for the chil-

dren he comes into contact with,—yes, even for non-academically-minded children, will release the childhood spirit and set free its latent powers.

Another essential in the teacher of good government is a dynamic, realistic scholarship. Special training in government and in its history is not enough. He must be familiar with the collateral subjects, I mean economics and sociology. This scholarship must be more than mere possession of broad information. It must reveal itself through a respect for learning,—whatever the source may be: pupil, fellow-teacher, courses, life itself. True scholarship in the teacher will convert his career into one of continuous learning. Yes, even beyond the probationary period and the compulsory alertness courses.

Another related quality is the possession of an educational philosophy that views education as a form of practical endeavor—a form of social action. In a world in which selfish, unscrupulous pressure groups subject people to a barrage of appeals to fears, awaken crazes and phobias, inflame prejudices, it is educationally suicidal for the teacher to assume an attitude of scientific neutrality. Neutrality under such circumstances can only give assent to the forces that make for poor government. At a time, when, to borrow from a recent address of

President Roosevelt, one-third of the nation is ill nourished, ill clad, and ill housed, it would be reducing the teacher's position to absurdity to have him, in the name of scientific neutrality, assume the role of the pussy-footer. Rather must the teacher's attitude be one that will prompt him to get students to select and interpret those factors which will generate an effective behavior pattern of social utility and purpose. Rather must he present boldly those truths which will inevitably lead the student to the conclusion that social security, the abolition of child labor, and the whole program of social reconstruction as outlined by the Commission of Social Studies in its first volume are imperative if democratic government is to survive. President Roosevelt in his fireside chats and Hamilton Fish Armstrong in his provocative, little book, "We or They," have given further definition to this program. About these truths, there can be no equivocation.

In this process, the teacher must not permit himself to be confounded by the dogmas of the extreme Leftists who reach out for the moon with short arms. Nor should he be alarmed by the stigmas of the Right-of-those-Bourbons, who, under the guise of eighteenth century symbolism, want to perpetuate inequalities and wrongs. Nor should he pay

attention to those very innocent colleagues around him—you know, those nice people of the genteel tradition—who believe that, somehow, knight errantry can flourish in this technological age of ours. The teacher who would be a force for good government must view teaching as positive statesmanship, a statesmanship which operates on the principles of *true* Americanism. You will find these principles in the frame of reference of the Social Studies Commission's Recommendations and Conclusions.

But a gracious personality, a dynamic scholarship, a progressive philosophy of education are not enough.

Unless the teacher has courage, these qualities become static and lifeless. In the absence of courage, cynicism results and takes the place of optimism which is the motive power of good citizenship. The teacher must have the courage to espouse unpopular causes, when he believes they are right. The finest tribute paid by one man to another was when Supt. Frederic Ernst in referring to Dr. John L. Tildsley said recently, "He championed issues; he created issues; he became an issue." Dr. Tildsley has been an excellent teacher of government for that very reason. I want to say at this point that I do not believe in painting a fantastic picture. We have thousands of teachers in our system at this moment who fairly

approximate the ideal I am setting. The job is to multiply their number.

However, the bread and butter urge is not to be underestimated. For the honest teacher to be free to teach the truth he must have some assurance of the permanency of his job. For this there is recourse to organization. I don't care what you call that organization—union or guild—or simply association it does not matter so long as it is dedicated to the ultimate ends in education, so long as it does not become a mere protective association of teachers' interests. Without organization the teacher becomes a prey to the whim and caprice of every local tycoon. Need I cite the ever increasing number of teachers who have been victimized in the last few years?

But organization has its more positive aspects. Through it teachers can step out of their academic cloisters and give the benefit of their thought and effort to parent groups, to boards of education, to boards of superintendents. Only through organization, can teachers hope to shape educational policy. Only through organization can teachers hope to abandon the role of disinterested spectators and become active citizens both in and out of the classroom. Only as a result of organization can they hope to enjoy those ideas and practices of good government that

they are called upon to teach. And it must be borne in mind that teachers cannot be expected to transmit ideas and practices of good government unless they themselves enjoy them in their daily work.

In conclusion, the teacher to be a factor in good government must be a person of broad, dynamic

scholarship who fulfils with fervor the duties of his profession. He must assert with reason and calm his rights both as a teacher and as a citizen. In the last analysis, civic education is the teacher himself.

SAMUEL STEINBERG.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

HIGH POINTS

A SUPPLEMENTARY READING PROJECT

"The old order changeth." Our book reviews are no longer the formal reports of yore. True, we have the suggested book lists from which to choose a novel, a biography, a play, an essay, poetry, or whatever is needed from the teaching point. Our lists at Haaren High School are similar to those given in other high schools. Many of our students are interested in vocational training; and hence they come to our English classes with mind-sets against reading. We have to break down these mind-sets by setting up new values. We have to do the usual incidental teaching by giving subtle suggestions, giving praise, and risking blame in the selection of books. Today, however, many of our oral English periods are set apart as privileged occasions on which we can share our reading experiences with the group. We

treat these occasions in a very serious and dignified manner. To share we must be interesting, we must be concrete, and we must be positive. Each member of the group is expected to make his contribution; and if not prepared he is looked upon as not pulling his share of the load. To help him contribute happily is part of the educational process.

As the counselor of the group, I take my part. Usually, I am responsible for one of the discussion groups. I began in one group with Rudyard Kipling's "Kim." Five boys had read it. Therefore, they could answer questions and give the story in part. They were not able to give Kipling's artistry in introducing India and the spirit of India in the first chapter. They could not see that those three boys sitting on the gun in front of the Wonder House at Lahore represented the leading classes of India: the

son of the Brahmin, the son of the Moslem, and Kim, the Sahib, but playing the role of the low caste Hindu. Along comes the lama from the Hills, the epitome of the culture and wealth of the Buddhist lamasery. The best of the East and the West meet when the Sahib, the Keeper of the Wonder House, and the lama meet and exchange gifts. Kim marvels at the lama and becomes his "chela." He goes to the market place with the begging bowl and meets the populace of India with all its superstitious religious belief. A volume is told in the incident of Kim's success in getting the food from the old woman vendor and in drawing away the sacred bull. We meet the nations of the world in the public square where Kim takes the lama to sleep for the night. The reader is introduced to the intricacies of the Indian "Secret Service" as Kim takes a message from the horse dealer and saves his life on the same night. Here is the first adventure of the story. All of this information and interest Kipling gives his readers in the first chapter. From then on, the first chapters took on a new significance for that group. "Setting" had a fresh meaning. Furthermore, these boys saw, as the story progressed, that an author writes for a purpose. As we unravelled Kim's struggle for the realization of self, the fulfilment of life for

the lama, the same self-expression of the Babu, the horse-dealer and Colonel Creighton became vital experiences. We, too, are struggling for self-expression. What a master artist is Kipling! Before the end of the term, every student in that group of thirty-five had read one of Kipling's books, twenty voluntarily taking "Kim," and ten had read more than five.

In a similar manner with another class, we busied ourselves with "Vanity Fair." Enough students had read the novel to fill in the story. Becky Sharp became a living personality. We watched the steps in her career, with effect following cause. We tested her choices and the consequences. We listed them. We evaluated the attitudes towards life of the different families represented. We questioned the right and wrong of these attitudes, according to the happiness they brought to themselves and others. We talked about the way the several characters met their situations. We discovered that some escaped from them, some were indifferent toward them, and some faced them. "Vanity Fair" became a popular book with that group. There are Becky Sharps with us yet, "lest we forget." I imagine there was some searching of hearts after the reading. "Characters in books are like ourselves, are they not?" said one timid girl.

In a third group, I shared my own appreciation of Meredith's "The Ordeal of Richard Feverel." As a parent, I told the class that I was able to see it from a different angle. To them, it represented the old, old struggle between parent and child. The failure of the parent interested them. They became interested in the struggle between the father's pattern for the son and the son's developing personality. They soon learned that more than depth of love is needed in the adjustment of parent and child. They traced the mistakes made by both the father and Richard. We talked much about the early environment and every person in that home, the playmates, the habits formed. The kind of environment the father threw about Richard was his first mistake—and a big one. His second was his lack of sympathy for Richard's poetry, in which he was trying to express his adolescent awakenings. Here, thought the class, was a story just like life. Ah! but it was another side of the story when we began to name the son's mistakes! The mistakes of both brought about sorrow and tragedy. In spite of their mistakes, Meredith shows beauty of character in the father, the son, the girl-wife, the nurse—love even in the social set. Meredith's prose poetry in his landscape pictures we read aloud. Before long there was a run on the school

library for Meredith's books. These introductory discussions were one of the several methods by which we aimed to arouse interest and to set up new values for reading. This exchanging of views among ourselves was surely worth while. The students gradually grew articulate in evaluating books. Discrimination in the choice of reading was evident. By the end of the term, some reading habits had been formed.

"I have learned something this term that I can carry through life," said one.

"I never liked books. I thought classics were dry," said another.

"We have learned to know ourselves through knowing books," said another.

Each student keeps a record of his reading on a filing card on which he writes correctly the name, the author, and the publisher of the book, and in his notebook a written review. For the latter, he is sometimes asked to follow a definite plan and sometimes he is free to talk about the book from his point of view. These reviews are leniently graded lest the assignment be judged as a task rather than as a privilege. My plea for honesty is respected, I believe, by the majority of the group. There is a considerable body of evidence for this supposition. Our informal talks are a good check-up. I take their word without question. At the end of

the term, each student is asked to draw a line through every book on his card which has not been read entirely. No penalty is imposed. One girl wrote: "I have learned this term how it feels to be trusted. This is not always an experience with us."

There are other phases of this educational experience. We talk about many topics in an intimate, socialized recitation. It becomes an experience of integrating personality. In fact, every group meeting is an opportunity for the integrating of personality through the sharing of book experiences. We talk about our own libraries. We describe libraries we have visited. There are always students who have visited the Congressional Library in Washington, the Morgan Library, the Public Library, the Huntington Library here in New York. I share with them my own days spent in the British Museum library and the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris.

Each term we study the make-up of a book. We illustrate by the books we are using, by a rare edition, or by a first edition anyone may have. We clip notices of special sales of books. We report news articles about books. Someone in the group is sure to know something about bookbinding and illustrating, a knowledge which he shares with us. We learn the meaning of copyright, dedication, and preface. We learn

that much that the author has to say is expressed in the preface. Boys come in from time to time with books found in a closet or in an antique shop. "Is this a first edition?" greets me frequently at the beginning of a period. Second-hand bookshops open a new world for these boys and girls. Such results are among my greatest joys in the whole experience.

At the end of the term, comes a reward for students and teacher alike. Each student compiles a book of book reviews of his own creation. He follows a model of his own choice. He follows its make-up: the frontispiece, dedication, copyright, title-page, table of contents, and preface. In making the book covers, the art department correlates with us. The best are selected for exhibition, as gifts to the library, and as models for future classes. These book projects give great satisfaction to those whose creative expression they represent and a reward for the teacher in helping to create a fresh interest in art.

LULA THOMAS HOLMES.
Haaren High School.

WRITING COMPOSITIONS IN FRENCH

A pupil gets a particular, irreplaceable satisfaction out of being able to say "Bonjour" or to sign his friend's autograph album, "Bonne chance." Psychologically, receptive or recognitional phases

precede active or reproductive phases of learning. Practically, the ability to read may be all the pupil will ever use, and receptive work may be thought to be enough. Yet it should not be ignored that there exists a strong impulse to use knowledge which has become one's own.

French may be learned as an experience in language appreciation. Yet even in an experience as essentially receptive as listening to a symphony concert, the listener takes pleasure in humming or whistling the tune after the concert (even though he does it badly and out of tune). Similarly, the pupil who has learned even a modicum of French likes to use it in "original" form.

It seems to prove complete acquisition to be able to reproduce what one has learned. However limited the material may be, the pupil gets definite satisfaction from saying or writing the simplest sentence that he himself has conceived in relation to a situation which makes it for him a creative and original experience.

The difficulty with composition work in any grade of French, and particularly in the lower grades, is that the pupil is unaware of his own limitations in linguistic expression. He is apt to try to express ideas which he cannot formulate, not realizing that the French mode of expression is quite different from the English.

The more intelligent the pupil, the more complicated are apt to be the ideas he wishes to express, and the worse the resulting composition in terms of barbarisms and clumsy expressions.

This condition exists until he realizes that it involves as much skill to restrain one's ideas within the limits of what one has learned to say as it does to learn new modes of expression. When a pupil stops and says, "We haven't learned how to say that yet," he has reached an awareness of the process of language learning that will lead to intelligent growth.

The problem in teaching composition, then, is to devise a situation where material learned may be reproduced freely but not too freely; a situation requiring the pupil to evolve from his consciousness language patterns previously acquired and which, by the pupil's application of them to a situation, become for him an original piece of work. The pupil must be induced to restrict himself to expressions he has previously learned. The difficulty is that composition is apt to lead one into complicated expression; the art of simplification of ideas is frequently beyond a pupil's powers.

Various devices may be used. The teacher may give a series of suggestive words outlining the composition: "Write a composition telling about your day, using as a guide the following series of

words: *se lever, aller à l'école, étudier, répondre aux questions, rentrer, jouer dans la rue,*" etc. Paraphrasing is another favorite device.

The following device has been used in second, fourth and seventh term classes, and has worked equally well at all levels.

Pupils were asked to select from the daily newspapers a picture of some kind: news photograph, cartoon, or illustration for an advertisement. They were to write as many statements about what they saw in the picture as they knew how to compose. They were not to seek any new words in the dictionary, but were to limit themselves to words and sentences they had already learned. It was explained that the purpose of the composition was not to increase vocabulary, but to exercise power of expression already acquired.

The same kind of pictures can be used in any grade; the difference between the various levels is seen in the extent to which the composition captures the idea of the picture; and at each learning level, the variation in individual ability is reflected in the extent to which imagination governs the writing.

Most interesting pedagogically were the results in the second term class. The simplest compositions, which even poor students could manage, followed the outline: "Dans cette image on voit"

or "Voici ——" or "Il y a dans la photographie ——" followed by an enumeration of persons or objects. Even the slowest students found that they could make one or two statements about a picture. Typical was the following: "Voici deux hommes et une femme. Voici une maison. La maison est blanche. La maison a trois fenêtres et une porte. La femme et les hommes sont devant la maison."

Better pupils would add to the enumeration of objects some verbal description of actions performed. Such sentences appeared as: "La femme est dans le magasin. Elle achète quelque chose." Or: "Le petit garçon joue avec le chien."

The next level of difficulty added some original interpretation of the picture, inventing possible reasons for the actions represented, or imagining facts that suited the picture. It became a kind of game to see how many statements could be made about a picture using only previously-learned vocabulary.

Each composition was different. To each composition submitted was attached its picture, clipped from the newspaper. A few typical second term compositions follow.

(Illustration: an advertisement for children's dresses.)

"Voici trois petites filles. Elles portent des jolies robes. La plus grande fille porte des fleurs dans un panier. La plus petite fille a six ans. Les trois petites filles

sont très heureuses. Elles sont belles."

(Illustration: rotogravure picture of several prominent statesmen.) "Il y a trois hommes dans l'image. Ils sont assis. Ils portent des chapeaux. Ils parlent. Un des hommes s'appelle Léon Blum."

(Illustration: an advertisement of a breakfast food.) "Le père et l'enfant sont assis à la table. L'enfant a faim. La mère apporte le déjeuner. Elle place le déjeuner sur la table. Le déjeuner est bon. Tout le monde est content."

(Illustration: a man and woman placing luggage in a car; two children watching.) "Dans cette image il y a un homme, une femme, et deux enfants. La père et la mère sont les parents des deux enfants. Les enfants portent quelque chose à la main. La mère aide le père. Ils demeurent peut-être près de New-York. Ils vont peut-être dans une autre ville. Ils vont rendre visite à leurs amis. La femme porte un manteau parce qu'il fait froid. C'est l'hiver. La neige est sur la terre."

Occasionally humorous observations were included. Of a man wearing eyeglasses, one pupil wrote, "Il ne s'appelle pas Teddy, parce qu'il n'a pas oublié ses lunettes." (Teddy was a pupil of the class who usually forgot his glasses.)

Upper term compositions are too long to quote here. In general, pupils kept within the limits of

their vocabulary. Their guiding principle was always: What else do I know how to say about this picture?

The advantages of this device for teaching composition are:

1. It is interesting as a novelty.

2. It is adaptable to different levels of ability. The weakest pupil can find something to say, and the best pupil has here the opportunity of using his knowledge to its full extent. It is the type of assignment that encourages maximum effort at any level.

3. It makes the pupil aware of his study of French at other times and in other connections than in the French class or when reading a French textbook.

4. It encourages the pupil to see a connection between his study of French and his everyday life; he tries to use the French he has learned in relation to what he encounters in his daily reading in English.

5. The exercise is initiated within the child. He finds his own material, applies his own knowledge, expresses himself on the basis of a stimulus he finds for himself, which is for that reason more interesting than a teacher-given subject.

6. It gives the pupil a concrete basis for his composition work, more interesting than a teacher's suggested list of guide words, less difficult than a subject to be worked out with no guide at all.

7. It enables the pupil to "clinch" what he has learned by using it.

However simple the compositions may be, even a sentence or two evolved by the pupil in connection with a picture represents for him a creative effort that is the consummation of the learning process. He has done something else than merely absorb. He has translated learning into active channels and obtained therefrom a creative satisfaction, and has besides solidified and fixed the body of knowledge acquired.

SARAH WOLFSON.

James Monroe High School.

MORE SONNETS, PLEASE!

"More sonnets, please" was the actual plea of a seventh term English class, to which, tragically enough, poetry had hitherto been either a total mystery or a subject regarded with distaste because of its apparent difficulty. This request was heard after the seventh in a series of lessons on the fundamentals of poetry had been given. Needless to say, the instructor was momentarily amazed, but overjoyed, for so infrequently in the teaching of English does one find himself confronted with this spontaneous and unanimous reaction, that such an experience literally impels one to cry aloud from the rooftops.

The occasion was the study of Palgrave's *Golden Treasury*. When the students were asked,

as preparation for the new unit, to list ten poems they had studied, heard, and liked, the results were pitifully meager. Nobody, or scarcely anybody, had remembered even ten poems, and very few pupils liked many of them. Misconceptions about the subject were rife and rampant.

What to do? The assignment was ignored for the moment and the students were told to turn to their history of literature text, which, fortunately, contained in its appendix a brief selection of readings. They were asked merely to listen to the reading of Kipling's "Ballad of East and West." At the close, comments were readily volunteered. "It's exciting—full of suspense." But everyone loves a good story. It was necessary to divert their interest in the narrative into the proper channels for a realization of the appeal of the poetic quality, not merely the story alone. A summary of the action in the poem was called for. When the triteness of the narrative and the total absence of the effects rendered by rhythm and imagery were noted, it took no urging for the class to listen to more.

In lesson two, the lyric appeal was contrasted with the narrative type by the reading of "Crossing the Bar" and "Prospice," each of which the class liked. "It has a good picture of sunset." "One makes you feel like fighting, the

other like resting." These comments showed the gradual perception and enjoyment of poetic technique.

During the ensuing lessons, de la Mare's "The Listeners" was read and the effect of "the silence surged softly backwards" was literally exemplified by the class, held spellbound with the subtle magic. When to illustrate a still more different type, "My Last Duchess" was heard, the seventh termers were avid to try their luck with Palgrave.

From the simple Elizabethan lyrics and light verse at which one astounded boy exclaimed, "I never knew 'hey nonino' and 'heigh ho' came from Shakespeare," the teacher turned with fear and trepidation to some of the less involved sonnets, "Consolation," "Absence," "Memory." A brief analysis covering merely the essential theme followed each reading. Then the students listened to a second rendition. When the teacher questioned for their opinions, the pupils praised the poems overwhelmingly. Why? "It's true." "People feel blue like that." "I waited fifteen minutes once and thought the same things." Could the spell hold? The teacher read several additional lyrics, this time not sonnets, on similar themes and elicited a comparison. "We like sonnets better. They're more dramatic." "*They make you feel deep inside!*" Surely what more could be asked toward a sounder appreciation of

poetry's fundamental appeal?

The next lesson opened with the instructor's query, as to what the class wished to discuss—light verse, other lyrics—and then came the deluge of voices, "More sonnets, please!" Accordingly, every one of Shakespeare's sonnets was studied, the class relishing the discussion of type, tone, thought, rhythm, application to every day life, selection of quotable lines, and the comparison of sonnets on similar themes. Then Sidney and Milton were read but found more stilted than Shakespeare—this from these hitherto ignorant boys and girls!

To conclude this unit plan in poetry, all students were assigned the memorization of their favorite poem in Books I and II of the "Golden Treasury." Twenty-five out of 33 selected sonnets, and at the time of the writing of this article, were enthusiastically engaged in, believe it or not, the eager study of the different forms even unto their rhyme and stanza construction. To see, what, if any, creative work they may produce in the difficult art of sonnet writing was not the aim of this particular lesson group, but to note their ready appreciation of poetry and their keen interest in one of its more involved forms is something to be remembered wistfully in many a moment of teaching depression.

ETHEL FANKUCHEN SOLOVAY.
Bushwick High School.

"STRAWS SHOW—"

AN EXPERIMENTAL CLASS IN LEADERSHIP TRAINING IN THE EVANDER CHILDS HIGH SCHOOL

There is no modern school, elementary or secondary, in which personality training does not occupy a prominent place. In all subjects, either directly or by implication, such training is inherent in the curriculum. Progressive teachers everywhere, at all times, have recognized its importance.

Years ago, when schools were smaller, a school was a society where pupils knew each other well; teachers were friends to whom one could go when in difficulty, sure of a sympathetic listener with time to devote to a child's troubles. When the school day was over, there was time and place to meet slow students who needed assistance, to hold club meetings, to get acquainted with one another. A class was a group of friends, each one known to all the others. "Our School" was the pride of all.

As we look back to the early days of any of our modern high schools and compare them to the same schools at the present time, we realize that we are indeed living in a new educational age. Today, students rush from one class to the next—sometimes traveling the equivalent of two or three blocks between recitation rooms. The classes are crowded. Pupils sit together in a class for

an entire term and do not know each other's names at the end of twenty weeks. In some cases they do not even know the names of all their teachers! It is the same with the teachers. Every forty or forty-five minutes a bell; one class leaves, another arrives. The same crowds in the same seats; even the names sound the same. All too often all semblance of the personal touch is lost.

When Evander became so large that we had to have a new and larger building, the first few years in the new home were years of adjustment. Single session soon became double session, and before long quadruple with two sessions overlapping. The close contacts between teachers and pupils which we had known in the smaller building were no longer possible. Clubs still flourished, groups still met, although with increased difficulty in finding time and place. In spite of all the clubs and outside activities, there was an appallingly large number of our student body who joined no clubs, who were members of no squads, who had no contact with others except in the classrooms. Manners were becoming noticeably careless both in school and outside, and were steadily getting worse. As in society around us, there was less consideration for the rights and feelings of others. Teachers still did their best to combat this tendency, but it was felt that some-

thing else was necessary.

It was at this time that the Committee on Personality Training was appointed by the Principal. This committee was to attempt to devise some plan to make the students manners conscious, to give them some idea of correct social usages, and to inculcate the importance of consideration for others. The members of this committee considered many plans. It was felt that to ask some department, such as the English, Social Science or Hygiene Department to undertake this training would be to impose an additional burden upon already hard worked departments. For a time it seemed that the home room teacher would be the one to be asked to undertake this training. There are always so many details to be attended to during an official period, however, it was feared that the prefect, with the best intentions, might not find time to devote to such a program. Then too, it was felt that if teachers talked about manners any more than most of them do anyway, the students would consider it just another of those things upon which grown-ups like to harp. It was therefore decided to see if this could not be made purely a student activity. And so a group of Student Personality Leaders was formed.

In the beginning, the Student Leaders were volunteers from whom were selected those who

showed traits of leadership, and who were interested in personality development. During the four years of its existence, although its aims are still to improve the manners of the student body and to inculcate habits of thoughtfulness for others, and consideration for the rights of others, the members are now very carefully selected. The organization is a definite unit in the life of Evander. We now have a special class, under the auspices of the Speech Department, for the training of Student Leaders. Fourth term English teachers recommend those students whom they consider to have shown qualities of leadership or those who might have such qualities developed. These students are interviewed by the Chairman of the Committee on Personality Training, and are selected on the basis of their interest in improving their own personalities and their willingness to lead discussions with other students. Selecting the students for this class is always difficult as there are always so many more applicants than we can possibly take. The course of study for this class is a combination of Public Speaking, Human Relations, and the regular fifth term Speech Course. At the end of this fifth term course, the members of the class continue as Student Leaders. For the next three terms, they hold one meeting a week as an extra-curricular activity, and con-

tinue to lead class discussions. These meetings are conducted as club meetings, with elected officers.

The Student Leaders, as the name indicated, lead class discussions. Each leader is assigned to an official class of his own or lower grade. On assembly days, the long official period is a "Personality Period" during which some topic relating to school policy, school conduct, individual problems, or human relations is discussed. Some prefects prefer to conduct such discussions themselves. No leaders are sent to these rooms. More than half of the home room teachers, however, have requested that leaders be assigned to them. To those classes the Student Leaders go to talk to the students and carry on discussions with members of the class. The General Organization is carrying on a campaign for increased club membership. It is the Student Leaders who talk over with the students the advantages of club membership. A few days ago, the dietitian complained that manners in the cafeteria were getting more careless. The Student Leaders are starting a drive for better lunch room manners. This term, these leaders, coöperating with the traffic and patrol squads, instituted a "Safety Week" during which self-control instead of squad-control was the order of the day. The traffic squad took a holiday, and

every student was asked to follow traffic rules without monitors. The results were most encouraging.

Often we wonder just how much good is being done by this group of very earnest students. The leaders themselves gain much. They acquire a poise and self-confidence by talking to groups of strangers which they probably would not obtain in any other way. They enjoy their own meetings where they are able to talk over their problems with sympathetic listeners. The exchange of classroom experiences as they tell them to one another is inspiring. In these group meetings is recaptured something of the atmosphere of the old time small school friendliness.

What effect is all this having upon the school at large? Who can say? "Straws show which way the wind blows," so we watch our straws closely. The other day one teacher observed to another, "When I first came to Evander no student ever seemed to consider holding a door open for anyone following him. Now I always have a door held open for me." Not long ago, two boys, apparently of the first or second term, were observed in a crowded car. A lady entered, but there were no seats. One of the boys was overheard to say to the other, "I don't want to do this, but my personality leader says I must, so here goes." And the lady was offered a seat! The

following was told by one of the girls in the special Personality Leaders' class. "Since we talked about getting the other person's point of view, and seeing his side of a question, I have been trying to think more kindly of my young brother whom I have always considered a pest. I am trying to see things as they appear to him. When he has nothing to do, I play games with him. I ask him about the books he is reading. The other evening I even helped him with his lessons. He seems so grateful and is much kinder to me. In fact, the whole atmosphere of my home seems different. Getting the other person's point of

view makes one so much happier." This is the method by which we, in one large, over-crowded high school are attempting to keep students and faculty in closer touch as we all work for the common good. Often, suggestions are made by students to their student leader which are brought to some faculty member of this committee and found to be good. It was due to such a request that we now have a short lunch period in the afternoon for the late session students. And so, our Student Leaders are a connecting link between student body and faculty members.

MABEL VERMILYA.

Evander Childs High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

REACHING THE INDIVIDUAL WITHOUT UNDULY BURDENING THE TEACHER

Among the evils that the depression brought to the schools is one that, unfortunately, may be felt for some years to come,—the heavy load of pupils carried by each teacher. One result of this load has been, at least in large cities, that the individual pupil often feels that he is not getting much attention and can "get by" without doing much work. Teachers realize that danger and try to make up for it by written work of various kinds including more written tests; but every test, if its value is to be realized for the pupil, must be at least marked and returned. This marking, even of

new-type, short-answer tests, puts a heavy load on the teacher, who should have time not only for thorough preparation of his work each day but also for the kind of recreation and rest that will enable him to do his best work in the classroom.

Since I retired from teaching, this problem has been in my thoughts a great deal and I think I have hit upon a partial solution of it that I should like to submit to teachers for trial. It consists of frequent written tests to be discussed and marked in the classroom, but with safeguards against dishonesty and carelessness. The tests, whether of the essay type or the short-answer type, should

be divided into sufficiently small units that the pupil can rate them with a fair degree of accuracy, particularly after a class discussion of the rating before it is made. To avoid any temptation to dishonesty and to insure a check on what each pupil is doing, the following procedure is used. Each pupil receives two sheets of paper, preferably of different colors. One of them may well be cheap mimeograph paper. Between the two he inserts a sheet of carbon paper, so that he has a copy of everything he writes. At the close of the test, if the discussion is to take place in the same classroom period, the original answers are collected and the carbon copy left in the pupil's hands. The original answers are then so distributed that no pupil gets his own. Discussion of the test follows, each pupil rating each question of the two papers before him. Marks are then added, each paper is given a rating as a whole, and both sets are collected by the teacher, who in a free period or after school hours will enter the two sets of marks opposite each pupil's name on his record sheet. If the questions have been properly worded, there will probably be little discrepancy in the two marks, and, with the new-type tests, there should be no discrepancy at all. Only those papers in which considerable discrepancy exists will need the attention of the teacher, who,

however, should read all the papers occasionally.

One other device should be mentioned. It is desirable that each pupil in marking a paper should not know who wrote it. For that reason each pupil should put on the original paper, not his name, but a number assigned to him. The same number will appear of course on the carbon copy. After the marking is finished, the pupil writes his name on his carbon copy and on the original copy of the other pupil's work he writes: "Marked by . . .," giving his own name. This fixes responsibility for the marking.

Professor McClusky, of the University of Chicago, in an article in *School and Society*, October 27, 1934, gave the results of an experiment that demonstrated the gain to the pupil of class discussion of a test as compared with simply returning papers for verification of marks. This "carbon paper method" not only provides discussion but it insures alertness during the discussion because, as a result of it, the pupil has to record judgments.

I shall be glad to receive criticisms, suggestions, and comments from teachers who experiment with this. Please address me at Box 213, Montclair, N. J.

F. E. MOYER.

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DeWitt Clinton High School.

REVIEWS

SUPERIOR CHILDREN: THEIR PHYSICAL, PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

By John Edward Bentley, W. W. Norton Company. \$3.00.

The doctrine that all men are created equal lies dead and buried beneath a mountain of distribution curves. But many unfounded notions regarding those members of *homo sapiens* at the extremes of the curve of normal distribution have yet to be dispelled by objective information. The author's particular interest is in children who are "beyond the average of their natural group."

With the aid of teachers and supervisors who had been attracted from all parts of the country to his course in "The Education of Gifted Children," Dr. Bentley has investigated problems affecting the development of the gifted child to whom, Dewey is quoted as saying, "Democracy has been unjust." Contrary to popular opinion, evidence is marshalled to show a positive correlation between superiority in learning ability, superior physical development, social behavior, and moral stability. Biometric studies by Galton and Pearson are cited to prove that in the vast majority of cases, superior children are the result of heredi-

tary endowments effectively developed. The author's discussion of Mendelian heredity as applied to the inheritance of superiority in man can only be described as inadequate and confusing. From it emerges the bizarre and wholly unfounded conclusions that (1) "Many of the factors involved in learning ability when seen as capacities, as far as present evidence goes, are unit traits," and (2) "... giftedness in child life may be presented as a dominant." Educators should be more firmly grounded and up to date on fundamental basic biological principles. In fact, his whole discussion on the relative effects of nature and nurture seems out of date in the light of the excellent summarization of the problem by Jennings¹, and as for the classic cases of the Jukes and Edwards, they have recently been repudiated by a prominent member of the American Eugenic Society on grounds of scientific integrity. As Dr. C. C. Furnas puts it,² "In scrutinizing the Jukes and Edwards records, it must be remembered that the evidence is colored." The notion

¹Jennings: "The Biological Basis of Human Nature," Chapter VI.

²C. C. Furnas: "The Next Hundred Years."

that human intellect can be explained in terms of brain activity alone, has also recently been questioned.

In dealing with special abilities and talents the author is on safer ground in that he acknowledges the want of available certified knowledge. He rightly admonished teachers, "at all times to exhibit sound wisdom by not interpreting the results of intelligence tests with a final and disconcerting fatalism," since those tests take no account of such admittedly important factors of human personality as, will-power, special talents, and Spearman's "C" factor, which might be described, though inadequately, by the word cleverness. The low correlation which Dr. Bentley shows to exist between general intelligence on one hand, and musical, drawing, and mechanical talent, on the other hand, is pregnant with educational implications. He points out the error of relating precocity to mental alienation and genius to insanity, and declares as most unfortunate the lamentable practise of forcing the development of gifted children.

A rather unusual consideration is that given by the author to the gifted girl. She compares favorably, and in some respects, exceeds her gifted brother in mental and physical health, intellect, reading interests, and personality traits. The contention is made that So-

ciety will be the loser if she is barred, because of her sex, from occupations at the doors of which she is aggressively knocking.

An early recognition of the gifted child by means of intelligence, achievement, and diagnostic tests is recommended and an interesting "Analytical Profile Chart" for the superior child is provided. The practicing teacher will find in the book a wealth of suggestive, stimulating, and to an extent, provocative material dealing with current methods of providing for the education of the gifted child in our present school systems, large and small. The author is not unmindful of certain weaknesses in the skipping, individuation, class sectioning, and special class methods, and he suggests ways in which they might be overcome. Not least in importance, as a factor in the education of the superior child is the professional and personal superiority of the teacher. Such teachers have all too often been especially assigned to salvage the dullards to the neglect of the valuable capital of the human race—the superior child. A wide survey of existing practices in the schools of the United States reveals that the general tendency is toward individuation of instruction within existing classes rather than the segregation of pupils for special education. Moreover, the problem of the superior child has been sadly neglected in our teacher

training institutions.

The biographical studies of Byron, Chopin, Pasteur, Edison, Mussolini, (Is Saul too among the prophets?) and Lindbergh, although interesting indeed, are of doubtful scientific value. What is more, their inclusion in the book does not seem logical, for all these boys grew to illustrious achievement before schools had any such provisions for superior children as are advocated by Dr. Bentley. A more convincing case might be made with biographical studies of men such as, Al Capone, Bruno Richard Hauptmann, and others whose gifts were led by the terrain of early environment and the boulders of later social circumstances to flow into the nether depths of the underworld or to meander over monotonous plains of mediocrity. Who knows but that the native organizing ability and potentiality for leadership of Al Capone were equal to those of Mussolini, and the courage and daring of Hauptmann equal to that of Lindbergh?

An imposing array of studies are cited to show that the constituent qualities of leadership appear early in life, that they can and should be recognized and cultivated toward the happy social ends of a democratic state.

In this discussion of genius, the author once again evidences an inadequate understanding of modern genetics saying that "Genius

may be exhibited as a distinct and separate trait, a distinct entity that acts as a unit character (sic) in the biological organism." Were it not for this unfortunate gap in the author's stock of information, some of the admittedly "baffling" aspects of genius, such as its tendency to sprout in unexpected places, its miraculous feats, its association with neuroses, would not be made to appear so mysterious.

The book is enriched with appendices stocked with suggestive material for teachers. It also has a glossaried index. Its general format is attractive and each chapter is followed by a rich bibliography. The book will be read with interest by intelligent parents as well as by teachers. Is there a parent indeed who does not regard his child as especially gifted?

ZACHARIAH SUBARSKY.

Benjamin Franklin High School.

EDUCATIONAL YEARBOOK—1936

Edited by I. L. Kandel, Teachers College, Columbia University, \$3.70.

Throughout this survey of national systems of education, the struggle of the individual for freedom of thought and conscience is everywhere manifest in the educational crises in every part of the civilized world. The effects of totalitarianism on education are too painfully patent to call for detailed analysis here. The gagging of teachers and free thinkers, the

shackling of education to pernicious ideologies, the mass regimentation in bigotry and darkness—all these are familiar to us as are the perverse uses to which such shibboleths as "Whoever controls the youth of a country, controls its future" have been put. In the democratic countries, this foul phenomenon may be detected in its embryonic form in the bitter conflict over who shall run the schools and for what. The depression has loosened the traditional bulwarks of the school, and made it a prey of those menaces which are bred out of discontent, poverty, and instability.

In spite of all the dark portents which loom on our horizon, Dr. Kandel seems to see in the democracies a new hope and a new vision rising out of all this foment and impending disaster. The forces of enlightenment seem to be girding themselves for what will probably be a battle to the death. It is not a pleasant spectacle to contemplate, yet the gruesome possibilities of dictatorship have brought home to us, as never before, the crucial nature of this struggle for mastery through control of education.

It is comforting in these "days of wrath," to read through a volume like this, and to experience the feeling that we are not alone in the fight to preserve our heritage

against the corrosives of hostile doctrines.

A. H. LASS.

TEACHING HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS HOW TO READ

By Stella S. Center and Gladys L. Persons. English Monograph No. 6 of the National Council of Teachers of English. D. Appleton-Century. \$2.25.

If the overwhelming unanimity of the most recent data on students' reading achievements is to be given any credence whatsoever, and there is every indication that this data is indisputably accurate, then our educational system stands condemned of an act the enormity of which is only now becoming apparent to us. For years, many more than we like to think about, we have been neglecting to teach our students to read. In a democracy whose survival depends to a significant degree upon a broad mass literacy, such failure cannot be easily condoned. Even to those of us little inclined to measure education in terms of a crass utility, such a vital omission can hardly be justified. The printed word, which to most of us unlocks the treasures of the past and enables us to subdue the present, has little, if any meaning, for at least thirty percent of our school population. Let us forget for a moment what this situation means to us who conceive our purpose to be the transmission of the literary heritage of western

civilization. Certainly, we can no longer, in the face of these facts, maintain that we speak a language that comes home to all men when even the very symbols of that heritage are meaningless to those whom we are to inflame, inspire, richen, and deepen. Let us forget, too, if we can, the universal truths we are trying to teach through our courses in the social and physical sciences. These can never in any real sense belong to the vast numbers who cannot read. Let us, in short, forget our whole curriculum with all its precious freight of accumulated wisdom and insights. But the misery and maladjustment that our failure here has created, the incipient delinquents it has left in its wake, and multitude of anti-social tendencies it has aroused we must take cognizance of. Pedagogically, these lower depths constitute a challenge which no conscientious educator can disregard. In a more fundamental human sense, now that the appalling facts have come to light, we cannot any longer continue to disregard what our negligence or ignorance has produced.

What can be done for these ugly ducklings in our school systems? What more can be attempted with these misfits who have manfully and mutely suffered our procrustean efforts? There are many answers. But primarily the matter of teaching them how to read and what to read is cru-

cial. For without the basic skills involved in reading, the realms of life to which we would introduce them must remain terra incognita. In "Teaching High School Students to Read," the authors have chronicled a most convincing and moving attempt to do precisely this. There are many answers but none quite so striking as the one here given in "Teaching High School Students to Read." The 500 non-readers who formed the Reading School at the Theodore Roosevelt High School were for the first time in their twisted and unhappy young lives given a feeling of mastery over the printed words. For the first time, their problems were recognized and treated with sympathy, and yet with scientific detachment. And for the first time, they were beginning to read, really to understand, to feel the life in words. That to us, is the most striking fact that emerges from this experiment, its utterly human basis, its passionate refusal to abandon the human débris that had come its way, its steady insistence upon the possibility of making reading a vital experience to these submerged souls. That this project, carried on under a Federal grant, staffed with competent and trained assistants should have been marked by a scrupulous regard for the proprieties of scientific work hardly calls for comment. The graphs and sta-

tistics are here for all to con- who have a palate for such things. There is enough of it here to excite the envy of the most numerical-minded of educators. But what looms largest in this undertaking is the human drama which the authors never lose sight of even in the midst of the wealth of concrete devices which the combined ingenuity of workers in the field has produced. It is the maladjusted pupil and his heroic little struggles with ideas in print who is the real protagonist of the piece. What this remedial program was able to salvage of human dignity, what it contributed to human happiness in these ill-starred lives (low I. Q.'s average, retarded at least one year in reading), what it added to impoverished imaginations—these are the things that are of greatest value.

That the program did not fulfill itself in every instance is no crucial objection. What is more important is the organized attempt at ameliorating the condition of the under-privileged, making vocal the inarticulate, giving renewed hope and faith to the virtually abandoned, and making possible for them a more abundant and meaningful experience through the printed word. To us, the experiment was worth everything it cost and more.

Obviously, such a program would have been impossible without the aid of the Federal gov-

ernment's generous grant. Certainly the intensely individualized instruction (approximately five pupils per tutor) could not even have been dreamt of under the orthodox set-up. And without this individualization, even the partial reclamation here described could hardly have been attempted. The question in the minds of most of us is: what is going to happen to this type of rehabilitary program so vital in staving off educational disaster and in salvaging something of the wreckage we ourselves are partly responsible for when, as is painfully apparent, the Federal government's lavish hands will be tied, and the monies that made this effort possible will be diverted to other sources? Will each school, without such assistance, find it possible to save these weaklings and add to an already overburdened personnel the arduous task of this exacting kind of remedial instruction? Will each teacher, even if he wants to, be able to become a teacher of reading in the fullest sense of the word? Will each department find itself equal to the challenge of making whole the sick and inspiring and directing the well? These are no petty matters nor are they easy of solution. The present project has definitely shown that the job can be done. It has pointed the way with clarity, force, sympathy, and eloquence. The authors have

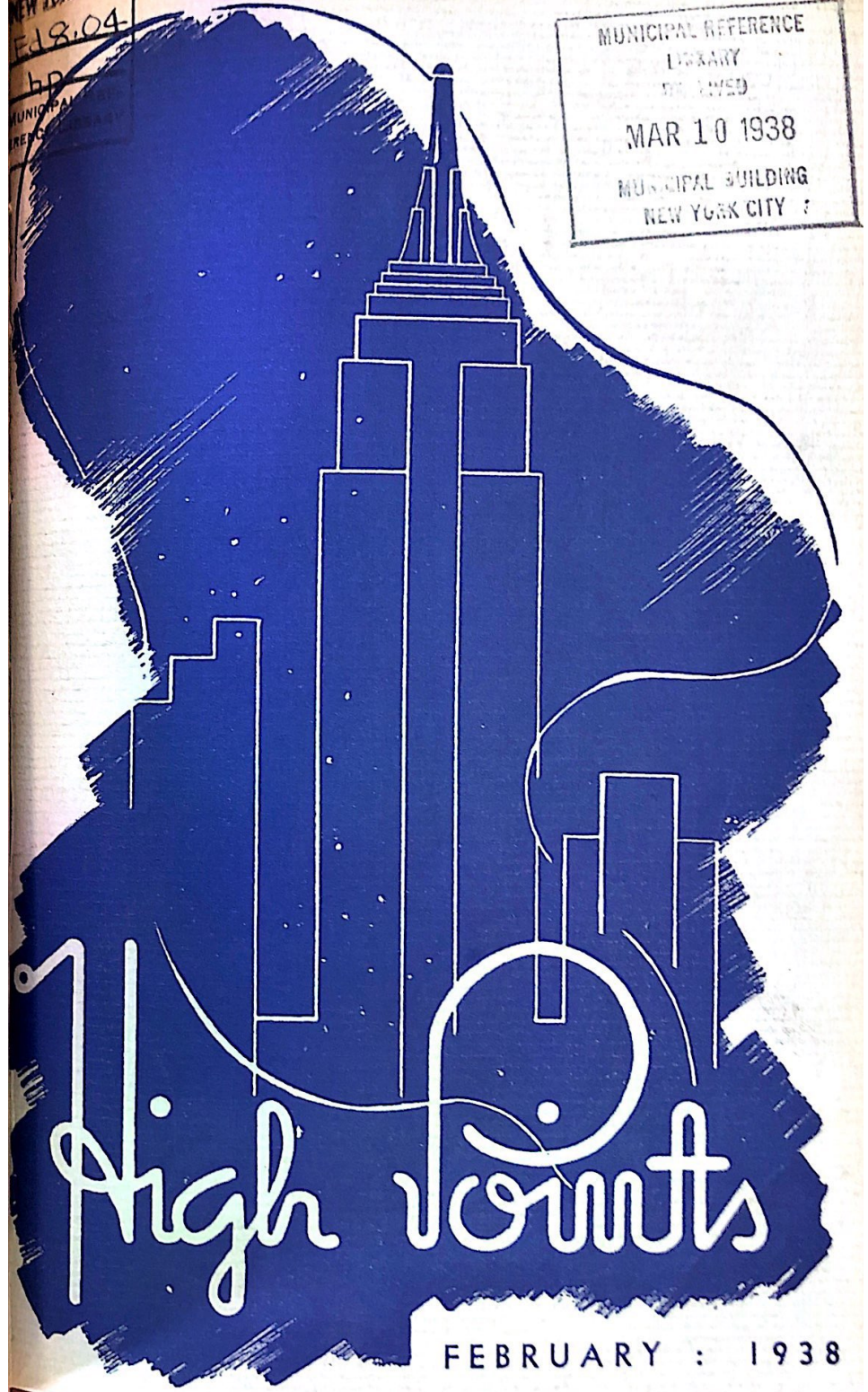
here brought to bear the findings of the most recent researches from optics to pedagogy in their effort to root out this evil in our midst. Can the lone teacher or single department meet these same problems without such elaborate mechanical aids as the ophthalmograph and metronoscope, without remedial tutors who will carry no more than five students per period? The answer is obvious. But difficult as the task may be, each school must meet and solve it with or without outside assistance. Somehow, out of the consciousness that we have at hand the instruments with which to fashion out of these frustrated and bewildered ones, an eager, hopeful, and intelligent citizenry, will come the means for applying our knowledge. We are aware that this is an expression of blind faith, that the presence of the means does not necessarily imply the achievement of the end. We will be reminded at this point by some of our colleagues that agitation for continuance of Federal aid is the only solution, that essaying the heroic is not necessary. Our only answer can be that while the government, city, state, or federal, must not abandon this fruitful project, we cannot content ourselves with

waiting upon the caprice of governmental reform. Time and ignorance will be taking their toll while we exercise our sovereign and inescapable rights as citizens. As teachers, however, we have an immediate duty to perform, to give our best to those who need it most, these underprivileged. We need not, we must not cease in our efforts to insist upon government support for these projects. We cannot, however, argue the moral and political rights of these children while we fail to do whatever we can for them here and now. Our zeal for justice should not obscure for us the urgency of the problem and the need for immediate remedial treatment, however fragmentary. Luckily, in this transitional period, we need not fear that our efforts will be wholly futile. For here in "Teaching High School Students to Read" there is a wealth of concrete material, an abundance of devices tested in practice, and a point of view that should do much to energize whatever activities in this direction may be undertaken. It deserves careful conning by every educator who has not wholly given himself up to indifference or despair.

A. H. LASS.

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A SOCIAL STUDIES RECORD

On the theory that anything worth preaching is worth practicing, the Social Studies Department of the Benjamin Franklin High School has endeavored during the past year to put those little touches onto its canvass of presentation that would help to make its work real and meaningful.

The result has been one of interest to the faculty and of help to the student body. The teachers, as an alert and coöperative group, have given of their best to help achieve the end of making the subject matter of the department personal, concrete, and current. What has been done is not at all unique to the school but rather is significant in its procedure. Because the department felt that others might be interested in its approaches, the following reports were presented. They do not at all comprise an exclusive story of all that the department has done; they tell nothing of the work done in the experiment in the new American History syllabus, nor of field trips that have been taken, nor of participation by students in outside panels and conferences; the stories that follow were obtained at the last minute of a term

and constitute an index to the activities mentioned. The teacher who here presents the summary of his work is the faculty representative for the activity.

Primary among our approaches to making the subject content visual and concrete is the work that has been done in supplementing the classwork with a film and radio program. A new approach in a current events club was made through the device of a discussion panel of teachers and participation of faculty members of other departments. Personal help through a remedial project in the social studies was carried out for the slower and backward pupils. Departmental problems were made the basis of faculty conferences so as to acquaint all with the plans that were being carried out, and at the same time, obtain their opinions.

These four activities are here described individually by the faculty advisors. They tell an interesting story.

HAROLD FIELDS,
 Chairman, Department of
 Social Studies.

Benjamin Franklin High School.

Many educators were struck with dismay some years ago when the latent possibilities of the film and radio as media for education were first suggested. The few who were inclined to be facetious contemplated the day when these new-fangled devices would reduce the high art of teaching to the stereotype of "canned education" along mass production lines; some of the more serious ruefully predicted that the last citadel of the craftsman would disappear as it already had in many other lines of work. Fortunately the cause of education has been spared from either the Scylla of the "canned" or the Charybdis of the "damned." In both cases, the dour predictions were very definitely the product of a warped perspective, a point of view that refused to see in the film and the radio, particular instances of a universal mechanization of life which, far from debasing the so-called human values, constituted the most substantial hope mankind has that human life will come out enriched. We can no more shun the contributions of science to pedagogy than we can its contribution to life.

Film-Radio education at Benjamin Franklin is not an expression of a hope relegated to paper; it is a functioning fact and an important part of the work of the Social Studies. It is also being used to weld together the independent ac-

tivities of different departments, and has sought to bridge the gaps that have made of the school a motley of departments. Far from remaining an extra-curricular activity devoted in the main to entertainment, our Film-Radio work, within the circumscribed sphere in which we are compelled to operate, is slowly becoming a vital part of our educational scheme.

Film presentations are scheduled far in advance of scheduled showings, the Social Studies program for example, being already complete for the school year 1937-1938. This insures a well-balanced group of educational films tapped from such diverse reservoirs as the Bureau of Mines, Tennessee Valley Authority, the American Museum of Natural History, General Electric Company, International Harvester, the Department of Agriculture, The Y.M.C.A., and the Bureau of Visual Instruction. Booking far in advance makes possible the active coöperation of all interested departments in making the presentation an educational event. In presenting "From Iron Ore to Pig Iron" and "From Pig Iron to Steel," the films were introduced by a member of the Science Department who commented on the scientific aspects of the production of iron and steel; during an intermission between reels a member of the Social Studies Department elaborated on the social and economic significance of the production of

iron and steel, and some of the classes in the English Department followed up by arranging class discussions and composition work based upon the material that had been presented. This is a single instance of how we have taken advantage of an opportunity for inter-departmental coöperation and integration.

Our radio work is of a piece. Actuated by the belief that significant learning involves a contemporary orientation to vital problems, we plan our radio education week by week, indicating to students and teachers alike the important educational broadcasts of the week, and suggesting to teachers how they can best utilize, by discussions in class or by composition work, the material to be broadcast. We took advantage—to cite one instance—of the celebrations in honor of Thomas Jefferson to evaluate his place in the America of yesterday and his significance for the America of today. The contemporary import of his ideas was stressed by asking students of the Social Studies to listen to Thomas Mann's broadcast on "Intellectual Freedom and Responsibility," the nature of whose talk we had little difficulty in anticipating, and to the Town Hall Meeting of the Air Symposium on "Propaganda, Asset or Liability?" Class discussion and written work followed. Here, too, we have enlisted the active participation of

interested departments in breaking down the walls of parochialism that have confined us for so long to a narrowly circumscribed sphere.

Benjamin Franklin is a vital part of the life of the community, and we are leaving few stones unturned in our attempt to raise a poorly educated neighborhood population to a proper understanding of their duties as fathers and mothers, as citizens and citizens-to-be. In connection with our already extensive work in Adult Education, we are hoping to plan a monthly presentation of select films, both sound and silent, especially designed to meet the requirements of the community we are trying to serve.

In both our film and radio work we feel that a vital task is being undertaken. As an aid to the mastery of our language, students are encouraged to listen to and emulate approved standards of speech. Limited by economic circumstance to a life of narrow insularity, we have provided our pupils with vicarious experiences that will serve to enrich their lives. In so doing, we have broadened their outlook, stimulated their interest, and vitalized our instruction.

HAROLD MAGER.

FRANKLIN'S CURRENT PROBLEMS CLUB: DEMOCRACY IN ACTION

At a time when the reverberations of European conflict echo throughout the world, and the peo-

ple of this country are faced with a new philosophy of political, industrial and social relations, there arises an increased need for clear, unbiased, sensible thinking. It was with this thought in mind that three members of the Social Science Department at Benjamin Franklin High School, Messrs. Wornow, Weinstein and myself, with the coöperation of the chairman, Mr. Harold Fields, undertook to organize a Current Problems Club. It was to serve a definite function in the community and in the school. It was to contain a cross section of the school's varied student body; Italian, Irish, Jewish, German, Spanish, Cuban boys, each from a different home environment, possessing its own peculiar prejudices. There was to be absolute freedom of expression. No restrictions were to be placed upon the topics chosen for discussion except that they were to be current, interesting, and provocative. In order to achieve a democratic organization, we decided to adapt the same form as "America's Town Meeting of the Air." In addition, a program and a publicity committee were chosen to select each week's topic, and to publicize the meeting. It might be noted in passing that the three men originally interested in the project remained as faculty advisers. This made possible a more thorough preparation of programs, a closer contact with individual

students and a more even distribution of work.

In order to attract students to this first meeting, and to set the pace for the succeeding sessions, the three faculty advisers volunteered to discuss the problem of "Court Reform—A Necessity or Evil." The formal discussion was to take thirty minutes and the remainder of the hour was to be left open for questions to the speakers and informal debate. When Friday arrived, the meeting was filled to capacity and an overflow crowd lined the aisles. It included a young German exile, several Italian and German nationalists, a young Cuban student who was completing his education in the United States, and many other diversified personalities. The group elected its officers, committees, and settled down to the business at hand. Inasmuch as the problem of judicial reform filled the newspapers and had been considered briefly in the Social Science classrooms, the boys had a sufficient background to follow the discussion intelligently. Their questions reflected an interest and knowledge of the subject matter. At times, the speakers had some very uncomfortable periods during which their viewpoints were criticized and thrown overboard. Students appeared eager and determined to present their own views.

During the succeeding weeks the following topics were discussed:

- a. Whither Democracy.
- b. The Spanish Crisis.
- c. Is War Inevitable?
- d. The C.I.O. vs. the A. F. of L.
- e. Youth Faces the Future.

Each session was a repetition of the first except that now the students acted as speakers, moderators, and so forth. At each meeting four or five members of the faculty would drop in and be encouraged to participate in the debate. They too found their viewpoints subject to intense scrutiny on the part of the students. In fact, it became customary to discard lines of distinction between student and teacher, and in its place were substituted merely the common principles of decency which governed the debate. This informality attracted many students who felt themselves confined by the formal discipline of a classroom.

Here was an example of democracy in action, where student activity and participation were not restricted by an ideology or dogma and where the principles of free speech and assembly, as applied by the early New England Town Meetings were adapted for use in the school community. The student was given an opportunity to think through those problems with which he is faced today.

SAMUEL SCHWEITZER.

A REMEDIAL PROJECT IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The remedial project in Social Studies is still a pedagogical infant barely one semester old. It was born of the need for individual attention to ungrouped students who, at Benjamin Franklin High School, are drawn from homes where, in many instances the language spoken is foreign. The boys have had little occasion to develop the habits of extensive reading, so necessary in the Social Studies. Some have not mastered the primary adaptation of reading, namely, translating printed words into ideas without conscious effort. A large number (and this is probably common to many high schools) lack fundamental skills, including the ability to outline historical material, and the ability to understand and use maps, graphs and other visual aids. Some have no skill in the use of a text, being able to trace only the most obvious material in the index. In many instances their lack of vocabulary makes it almost impossible for them to prepare the text-book assignments.

Through the coöperation of Mr. Frank Smerling, the Project Director of High School W.P.A. Projects, our Principal, Mr. Leonard Covello, and the Chairman of the Social Studies Department, Mr. Harold Fields, we were able to have a W.P.A. unit assigned to our school. The writer was desig-

nated to supervise and administer the remedial aid.

Various methods were resorted to in choosing the students who should take remedial instruction. Intelligence and silent reading tests, tests of historical vocabulary and concepts, the pupil's past record and teachers' recommendations were all valuable aids. Pressey's "Test of Vocabulary and Concepts in the Social Studies," 1937 Revision, was of value in measuring the background of students, although in conferences devoted to this topic, teachers questioned whether some of the specific items of this test measured facts or concepts.

Since the first step in any remedial procedure is to have as complete a record of the student as possible, an individual folder was kept for each boy. In addition to the student's program and attendance record, the folder contained as comprehensive a story of the physical, social, educational, and psychological background of the student as the remedial teacher could glean from individual acquaintance with the student, and a statement of his past performances. To this was added a day-by-day account of the boy's reactions to tests and remedial devices and exercises.

The procedures used varied with the needs of the retarded student. In very few instances was one method of attack sufficient. Students who showed weaknesses in

comprehending the written word were given lessons and exercises in extensive silent reading. An excellent study of remedial reading in the social studies was found in J. M. McAllister's "Remedial and Corrective Instruction in Reading" published by Appleton-Century (1936).

I have heard history teachers excuse a failure with "Oh well, he can't read. He ought to be given remedial reading by the English Department." A diagnosis, remedy, and alibi, in two short sentences! Here is a common error. The words "He can't read" may mean any one of several things. If they mean that the boy has not attained the primary adaptation of reading, and cannot transmute the printed words into the ideas they stand for, the boy definitely requires training in scientific remedial reading. In most social studies cases, however, the student requires exercises in reading social science material, and a build-up of his ideational social studies background. He has mastered the technique of reading, but cannot comprehend the social-studies textbook because he is lacking in vocabulary and the required apprehensive knowledge. Let any one who doubts this watch the student who has dismissed with a curt, "He can't read," as he peruses a pulp magazine like "Lurid Tales." The boy's rhythmic eye movements are an indication of good reading

technique. His absorption definitely negatives branding him as a "word-reader." He is without doubt metamorphosing the printed words into the ideas that signify without any conscious effort. It is background and reading in the social studies that are required by many boys who are so casually designated as non-readers.

To take care of this type of problem, boys were given lessons and exercises in both intensive and extensive reading from history, magazines, newspapers and mimeographed or typed material. Some boys required more attention in intensive reading, others in extensive reading. Every effort was made to build up the student's general vocabulary as well as his knowledge of every day historical concepts. Some boys received practice in answering specific questions based on strictly limited and timed reading, others needed exercises in summarizing paragraphs. An effort was made to suit the remedial treatment to the specific weakness of the individual student, as for instance, the writing of a precis, or summarization, which not only requires the exercise of reading ability and judgment but also gives the retarded student practice in expression. In all the reading lessons an effort was made to increase the vocabulary of the students.

It was observed how little some pupils knew about the use of a text. To help the students, exer-

cises were prepared in the use of the index, the table of contents, chapter-headings, sub-topics, maps, and graphs. Instead of something to peruse casually, the textbook became a many-sided aid to learning. The understanding that boys got of the relationship of chapter heading, topics, and subtopics in a book like Thomas and Hamm's "Modern Europe" aided them not only in outlining historical material but in seeing large units as a whole composed of integrated parts.

Another problem to be tackled lay in the fact that weak students cannot outline the material they study. This skill is essential in subjects like the Social Studies which deal with vast and comprehensive phenomena. Outlining brings with it understanding of relationships and a whole view of the subject's studies. It is not only a skill, but also learning itself. The boy who is alert to relationships between subordinate topics and the main field of his historical inquiry is on the road to a mastery of his subject. In the project, students were made cognizant of the headings and sub-headings in their texts, which were in effect an outline of the book. Exercises in summarizing and outlining followed.

One teacher diagnosed a weak student as a good reader but woefully weak in experience. She made the student summarize the

important units of his history, motivating him by telling him he was going to write his own text-book and the student improved markedly in the ability to express himself.

In succeeding terms, we hope to attack the problem of developing, in retarded students, judgment in discriminating between facts and opinions, and between the important and the unimportant, as well as developing skill in weighing sources of information. While these end-products of education are largely dependent on background, it is possible to lay down criteria that will help the retarded student, who would learn little without guidance. The normal student picks up the ability to discriminate between fact and opinion, whereas the remedial student does not.

Skill in using reference works is an essential aim of secondary education. Remedial students may not know how to use the card-index in the libraries. Almost all of them must be taught the purpose of the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature" and various reference aides like the "Statesman's Year Book," "World Almanac," and the encyclopaedias.

Since most text-books are too difficult for the remedial student largely because of the vocabulary, every remedial unit faces the problem of how to overcome this hurdle (and unfortunately text-

books are pedagogical hurdles for the retarded student). The best answer to this problem undoubtedly is to write a simplified text-book, simpler in language rather than thought, introducing new vocabulary terms chapter by chapter, with a consciously planned limitation upon the number of new words introduced in each chapter. Since good texts can not be written with journalistic speed, other devices must be used as temporary measures. One device is to present simplified discussions of important topics in mimeographed form. Another is to ascertain the difficult words in each chapter of the text, and explain them before assigning a lesson. These remedies are suggested not merely for remedial units, but for the classroom teacher as well. Both of the later procedures will be projected at Benjamin Franklin High School next term. To ascertain the difficult words for each individual student in a classroom, it is necessary to prepare objective vocabulary tests for each chapter or section of a text-book.

"How can I cover my subject if I have to stop to teach vocabulary?" the average history teacher will query. There is no doubt that history teachers are faced with a serious dilemma when their students cannot understand the text. They can resolve the difficulty by not using a text, and thus losing a valuable aid to study. They can close their eyes to the vocabulary

the text with a fervent hope that the students will in some way assimilate the material. But the only real answer to the question is that the teacher may cover less subject matter if he spends some time on vocabulary difficulties but all students will definitely learn more if they can understand the text-book. It will doubtless be necessary to individualize instruction more than is done at present and more probably than is possible now with large pupil loads. Text-books should be attuned to the verbal and ideational background of the mass of students today and should consciously and systematically introduce (and in necessary cases, define) new vocabulary terms. The text-book should not be designed for the highly literate boy. Supplementary readings will provide sufficiently difficult reading for the latter's abilities. A text that takes into consideration the actual vocabulary of the boy now attending high school will reduce to a minimum the vocabulary that must be taught in the classroom.

While the main purpose of the Remedial Unit in the Social Studies was to develop essential abilities, we must emphasize a by-product which is at least as important as any of the direct aims of the project. Various remedial students developed a new confidence which manifested itself in the social studies recitation room. They had hitherto been afraid to recite vol-

untarily before their classmates, lest their answers provoke laughter. In individual instruction they found a teacher who treated all their answers with consideration and complimented them when they were correct. It takes very little to give a fillip to the ego of some students. A boy gets a definite and clear understanding of a concept as a result of individual instruction in his remedial class. In the Social Studies classroom, a very fine opportunity is found for applying that concept.

SUMMARY

Remedial instruction in the Social Studies must be individualized. No one procedure is valid for all students. The remedial and recitation teachers must ascertain the weakness of each student and apply the exercises deemed essential to overcome the shortcomings of the retarded boy.

Ordinarily, suitable pedagogical remedial procedures will be found in lessons and exercises in intensive and extensive reading in the Social Studies, exercises in the use of the text and reference works, lessons in summarizing and outlining, constant emphasis on vocabulary and concepts, and lessons to develop judgment. The concomitant feeling of confidence evoked by growth in the skills and abilities noted above is an effective emotional element not to be lightly regarded.

S. ROBERT SHAPIRO.

THE DEPARTMENTAL CONFERENCES
OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES
DEPARTMENT

JACOB GOROWITZ, *Secretary*

The most important and heartening note that was struck at our departmental conferences was an awareness that we must somehow adjust the course of study and our methods of teaching the social studies to the needs of a group of boys who are the product of an environment which hinders adolescent learning.

The gravity of our problem can only be understood when one is familiar with the numerous obstacles that stand in the way of successful achievement of our student body. Lack of space permits us to merely list some of the more important barriers that militate against successful teaching. Most of our boys are only one generation removed from immigrant parents; the resultant language difficulties can be appreciated only by those teachers who meet these boys in groups of thirty-five; crowded living quarters make the problem still more difficult; the omnipresent poverty which is characteristic and which is even more acute in times such as the present takes its toll in the form of further hindering the handicapped; there is a paucity of library facilities, and absence of sufficient playgrounds; in short the boys who attend our classes are the

victims of one of the slum areas in our city.

In our attempt to circumvent these barriers, we have devoted a goodly portion of our conferences in discussing the value of a well organized remedial social studies program. We have agreed that such a project can be of great value in overcoming many obstacles which are related directly or indirectly to language difficulties. Just what form such a remedial program shall take has not yet been definitely determined. The members of our department have shown a keen interest in the type of work the W. P. A. remedial teachers are now carrying out, and hope to benefit by their experience.

We have set up various committees to make the study of the Social Studies more realistic, vivid and pertinent to the lives of our boys. Some results of these committees have been a well planned radio and film program which is widely publicized and enthusiastically attended; an up-to-the-minute bulletin board of current events in each of the Social Studies classrooms; a "Current Problems Club" where vital issues are discussed and debated by the boys and whose meetings are eagerly anticipated; visits to museums, housing exhibits and other displays which tend to make the study of the Social Studies more objective.

We have made frequent surveys from time to time in an attempt to collect lists of historical and economic terms which are beyond the comprehension of our boys and therefore must be included in many different forms of reading exercises which will make them part of their permanent reading vocabulary.

A committee has been set up to gather the experiences of those teachers who are using the new American History syllabus for the purpose of avoiding the pitfalls that usually confront those who are breaking away from the old path. Such important details as the amount of time to be devoted to each topic, the opportunities for correlation and review; and the avoidance of repetition have

been reported and discussed.

From what has been said, we believe that we have made valuable use of what ordinarily proves to be dull departmental meetings which usually deteriorate into "being lectured at" by the chairman.

* * *

These teacher activities and other programs, are being experimented with in our department to the end that the content of our work shall be as progressive, as enriched, as real, and as personal as it can be made. It is too early to note definite results but the experiments are, in the meantime, wholesome and provocative of study.

JACOB GOROWITZ,
Secretary.

READING DISABILITY CASES IN A CHILD GUIDANCE CLINIC

I

The problem of reading disabilities in children is receiving increasing attention from educators and psychologists. The handicaps which beset the poor readers in life are many. Since reading is the primary subject at school, serious maladjustments will arise if a child is backward in reading. Since books, magazines, and newspapers play such an important role in our daily lives, it is evident what a tremendous handicap the

poor reader must suffer. Then, too, the poor reader will find it difficult to make a satisfactory economic adjustment because the chances for success in most vocations are limited for a person with inferior school accomplishment.

It is not surprising, therefore, to find that cases of reading disability are frequent at a child guidance clinic. A conservative estimate would place the number of cases with reading difficulty in

a child guidance clinic at about 15 per cent of the total referrals.

Poor readers are referred to a clinic for a variety of reasons. Some children have become so antagonistic because of their inability to read that they refuse to attend school. Others are serious conduct problems and delight in annoying their teachers or classmates. They are inclined to develop feelings of inferiority and insecurity. Some of these children regard themselves as stupid, although many of them are average or above average in intelligence. Frequently, one can observe interesting compensatory mechanisms develop in poor readers. Some may become thoroughly engrossed in athletics, mechanics or social activities. One boy, whom we had occasion to study, always carried books with him wherever he went, although he could hardly read a word. That was his way of proving to the world that he could read.

One can observe an improvement in the attitude and behavior of many of these children after they show progress in reading. Frequently, the emotional difficulties disappear of themselves although the treatment may consist solely of remedial instruction in reading.

II

One symptom which is characteristic of most of our reading

disability cases, is the tendency to make the strephosymbolic type of error. The word strephosymbolia is derived from strepho, meaning twist, and symbolia, meaning words; or the tendency of poor readers to twist words or make reversals.

There are two types of reversals—static and kinetic. Static reversals are confusions of single letters similar in configuration, but differing in spatial arrangement. Our cases show a strong tendency to confuse the letter "b" for "d," and "p" for "q." Such letters are confused in combination with other letters in words, e.g., they read "dig" as "big" and "quit" as "pit." Orton points out that this tendency to confuse "p's" for "q's" may have given rise to the admonition "to mind your 'p's and 'q's." Kinetic reversals are confusions of the directional sequence of letters within words or of words within sentences. "Bread" is read for "beard," "who" for "how," "was" for "saw," "on" for "no," etc.

Occasionally, reversals are seen in arithmetic. The child may misread 12 as 21 and 16 as 61, etc. This element of sinistral progression or the tendency to move in the left direction is an outstanding characteristic of the poor reader. Many of our cases show unusual facility in reading reversed or mirrored print. Occasionally, we have observed in some of our

cases tendencies to write mirror-wise.

This strong tendency to move in the sinistral direction which one observes in poor readers has led to the linking up of reading difficulty with eyedness and handedness. The dominant or master eye in sighting is the eye which the individual uses, for example, in looking through a knot-hole in a fence. The child who prefers his left eye in sighting will tend to move his eyes in the left direction, which is the direction of his preferred visual field. Also, the left-handed child finds movements from a point in front of the center part of the body toward the left, easier than towards the right. It has been demonstrated in tachistoscopic experiments, that a left-handed person will catch the end letters of a word first, while the right-handed person usually gets the initial letters first. Reading difficulties are explained on the basis of strong sinistral tendencies of a motor mechanism conflicting with the dextral mode of conventional reading and writing. Reading disability, says Jastak, is essentially a social disease because the English language is essentially a dextral language. Our data at the clinic indicates that about 70 per cent of the reading disability cases are left-eyed while 30 per cent are frank left-handers. However, there is considerable social prejudice

against left handedness. Since handedness very early in life is influenced by training, it becomes exceedingly difficult to separate the influence of heredity and environment later on. Thus a child may throw a ball with his right hand and still be latently left handed. Until tests are developed which measure innate sidedness or laterality, the whole discussion of the relationship between reading disability and laterality must remain an academic one.

III

While it is true that reading difficulties are more frequent in the duller child, it is equally true that reading disabilities do not spare the bright child. We have had occasion to study at our clinic several cases of non-readers who were above average in intelligence. Moreover, the majority of our reading disability cases cluster about the average in intelligence. We are convinced that intelligence is not a primary factor in the causation of reading disabilities.

The most natural tendency would be to look for the cause of the reading difficulty in some defect in the visual apparatus. While we have found poor visual acuity and restricted or impaired visual fields to be significant in individual cases, the greater majority of our cases have perfectly good vision. Recently, Seltzer has shown that eye muscle balance may be a significant factor in the causation

of reading difficulties. Very few of our cases have ocular muscle weaknesses.

From our studies of poor readers, we are inclined to feel that there is no simple primary cause to account for all reading disabilities. Reading diagnosis requires careful and thorough exploration of a child's intellectual capacity, sensory and motor make-up, emotional and personal traits, and educational history. Techniques have now been developed which make a thorough diagnosis possible. A child guidance clinic

by the very nature of its set-up is best equipped to do it.

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CHARACTER TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

During a recent meeting of the faculty of New Utrecht High School, Dr. Maurice E. Rogalin, our Principal, in speaking of the problem of discipline, told the teacher: "These boys and girls bring to us an idealism which is beautiful—an idealism which is surging through their being. We must harness that marvelous spiritual force, we must use it for their greater good."

This is a statement of profound wisdom and shows a deep sympathy with and understanding of the adolescent, and I believe that every teacher should be convinced that it is true. He should never relinquish that conviction, even

during those frequent moments of nerve-racking travail when some severe disciplinary problem threatens to create an upheaval in the classroom.

Teachers will have many ideas on the question, "How can we harness this spiritual force for the greater good of the student?" I believe that direct character instruction in the classroom, as a part of the term's curriculum, at regular periods, just like other subjects, will help to preserve, stimulate and strengthen that idealism so that it will guide the maturing boy and girl into paths of usefulness and righteousness and beauty.

I do not minimize the real significance of indirect character training, which so often goes on in the classroom. That is necessary, too. But indirect character training is a matter of accident.

When the teacher makes up his lesson plan, counting the minutes at his disposal for any particular lesson, he does not provide in that plan for a definite lesson in honesty, ambition or thrift, as the case may be. He plans his lesson to cover a definite portion of the term's work in science, mathematics or stenography, depending on his particular subject. He is fearful of any interruption which will interfere with the speedy execution of the work arranged for that special period.

Naturally, the conscientious teacher, when an occasion arises through some provocation in the classroom, will pause for a moment to stress loyalty or self-reliance, as seems necessary. But he does not welcome, at that moment, the necessity for that discussion, however important it may be; there isn't time. He is anxious to complete all the work he planned so that he, too, will reach a given point in the term's work on schedule time, as he and all the other teachers in his department are expected to do.

But the teacher will be glad to teach any character trait which he has definitely planned, in a lesson to be given at a regular period

of his day's work. The students will have that lesson listed on their program cards, they will be more or less prepared for it, knowing it to be a part of the regularly assigned routine work. They will take it as casually or with as keen an interest as they do their other academic or commercial assignments. They will come to regard this weekly forty-five minute lesson in moral courage or courtesy or creative imagination as an important part of their school career, knowing that their promotion and eventual graduation from school will depend on their ability to achieve a passing grade in character traits as well as in history, biology or literature. They will learn to measure their success as students, to some extent, by the yardstick of character and personality.

First of all, we must teach the student to set the highest value on his personality; to acknowledge no limits to his potential usefulness and success as a human being—in order to make him realize that there is a divine spark in his makeup.

This high opinion of himself will not lead to a false pride nor a foolish sense of his own importance. It will develop a lofty self-esteem and self-confidence and an interest in the finest associations of life so that he will be inclined to choose with discrimination his vocation, his

friends, and his recreations, and will protect him against the choice of anything ugly.

In "Man The Unknown" Dr. Alexis Carrel writes:

The science of man has become the most necessary of all sciences . . . We must undertake a more exhaustive examination of our inner world . . . our character. The health of the intelligence and of the affective sense, moral discipline and spiritual development are just as necessary as the health of the body and the prevention of infectious diseases . . . Our scientific curiosity must turn aside from its present path and take another direction. It must leave the physical and physiological in order to follow the mental and spiritual."

In the preface of this book Dr. Carrel writes:

"This book is dedicated to all whose everyday task is the rearing of children, the formation or the guidance of the individual."

This is a challenge to teachers which we should not ignore and we should tell the students a little, at least, of the interesting topics which Dr. Carrel mentions—"the existence in Man of extraordinary potentialities, such as creative and scientific imagina-

tion, esthetic intuition, clairvoyance, telepathy; his psychological concepts, such as intellectual curiosity, intelligence, moral, esthetic, religious and social sense; his spiritual activities, such as meditation, prayer, miracles, which open to Man a new world."

It is important to tell the student something about the integration of personality and the essence and magic of genius which Myers, in his "Human Personality," explains in the most fascinating style, through his analysis of what he calls the supraliminal and subliminal strata of being, whose combined action causes subliminal "up-rushes" of creative achievements.

We might tell the student something of the wonders of the human mind and thought in "Men Like Gods," in which H. G. Wells suggests that the most important part of the student's education is teaching him how to come in contact with his sub-conscious mind.

The student could learn something of the dormant power in Man, suggested in "The Energies of Men" by William James, Professor of Philosophy, Harvard University. He says:

"Everyone knows what it is to start a piece of work, either intellectual or muscular, feeling stale—or *cold*, as an Adirondack guide once put it to me. And everybody knows what it is to 'warm up' to his job. The process of warming up gets particu-

larly striking in the phenomenon known as 'second wind.'

"On usual occasions we make a practice of stopping an occupation as soon as we meet the first effective layer (so to call it) of fatigue. We have then walked, played, or worked 'enough,' so we desist.

"That amount of fatigue is an efficacious obstruction on this side of which our usual life is cast . . . giving the same sort of an impression that an able-bodied man would who should habituate himself to do his work with only one of his fingers, locking up the rest of his organism and leaving it unused.

"But if an unusual necessity forces us to press onward, a surprising thing occurs. The fatigue gets worse up to a certain critical point, when gradually or suddenly it passes away, and we are fresher than before. We have evidently tapped a level of new energy, masked until then by the fatigue-obstacle usually obeyed.

"There may be layer after layer of this experience. A third and fourth 'wind' may supervene. Mental activity shows the phenomenon as well as physical, and in exceptional cases we may find, beyond the very extremity of fatigue-distress, amounts of ease and power that we never dreamed

ourselves to own,—sources of strength habitually not taxed at all, because habitually we never push through the obstruction, never pass those early critical points. It is evident that our organism has stored-up reserves of energy that are ordinarily not called upon, but that may be called upon, ready for use by anyone who probes so deep.

"The problem is, then, how can men be trained up to their most useful pitch of energy? And how can nations make such training most accessible to all their sons and daughters? This, after all, is only the general problem of education, formulated in slightly different terms."

Most people live half their lives before reading books like the above. Yet I believe that the philosophy and psychology contained in them, and many more, should be presented in the form of ideas simple enough for the student to interpret and grasp. These thoughts will stir his imagination, giving him an inner vision and a clear sense of his latent, unused powers.

What character traits could we teach?

We could teach such personality traits as refinement, modesty, industry, dependability, tact, cooperation, leadership, integrity, tolerance, endurance, responsibility, judgment, physical health,

mental health, efficiency, loyalty, kindness, cheerfulness, self-control, adaptability, social-mindedness—qualities which the Board of Examiners seeks in the teachers.

Or every character trait could be listed and a committee of educators could be appointed to select twenty of the most important qualities. I believe twenty would be sufficient, since several similar traits could be telescoped and taught at the same time, and would provide a weekly forty-five minute period during the entire term.

There is available much excellent material for these lessons. Every good book that was ever written, every good play that has been presented, every good sermon that has been preached—by philosophers and educators, from time immemorial down through the ages—all have contributed suggestions on character training. There is no limit to the thoughts and ideas that could be gathered, from every phase of life, bearing on this important subject.

These lessons should be repeated term after term, the ideas and methods of presentation naturally varied; but always the primary standards stressed and urged and idealized and offered as basic truths by famous men and women in all fields of activities as requisites for success and happiness.

I believe the cumulative strength

of these talks on human personality, week after week, year after year, will have a refining influence on the students which will be priceless. It will arouse an interest in their own natures, an awareness of their potential worth, a curiosity to test their imagination; it will stimulate their enthusiasm for some definite aim in life and in wholesome, creative thinking; it will develop a sense of honor and beauty which will tend to elevate their standards of life and reduce criminality. It will preserve "that beautiful idealism, that marvelous spiritual force which is surging through their beings, for their greater good."

I read that "he who plants a rosebush and cares for it through leaf and bud and blossom, enters into a partnership with God in the creation of something beautiful."

If this is true of a flower, how much more true of a human soul! I am convinced that if the schools should give regular and systematic training in character and personality as a definite part of the course of study, they would "enter into a partnership with God in the creation of something beautiful"—the development of fine men and women.

BELLA M. BALTOR CHASE.
New Utrecht High School.

IN MEMORY OF MARY A. CONLON, PRINCIPAL OF WALTON HIGH SCHOOL*

My memory goes back to a day a number of years ago, when I was serving as district superintendent in the high schools when I received a message from Dr. William L. Ettinger, then Superintendent of Schools, directing me to see him as soon as possible. Dr. Ettinger told me that he had decided to assign me to the development of a system of junior high schools.

This assignment had many important effects but one of the most important and most pleasant, to me, was that it led to an acquaintance with Miss Conlon, which ripened into a genuine friendship and a profound admiration on my part for her.

Centuries ago, one of the Church Fathers, those great men who kept the lamps of education, mortality, and holiness burning during the so-called Dark Ages, said that God, in creating human nature has wonderfully dignified it and although we often see exhibitions of conduct that is not dignified but is governed by selfish and unworthy motives, yet, on the whole, human nature is essentially good. Men and women strive to do what is right; their ideals are being raised higher and

higher, the order of the world is goodness and virtue, the world is growing better and brighter every day through the devoted service of high-minded men and women.

With the psalmist, we say
"When I consider Thy Heavens,
The work of Thy fingers
The moon and the stars which
Thou hast ordained
What is man that
Thou art mindful of him
And the Son of Man that
Thou visitest him
For Thou hast made him
A little lower than the angels
And hast crowned him with glory
and honor."

To some men and women, however, it is given to possess more than the common measure of human goodness and virtue. They stand out among their fellows, some for one, some for many characteristics. In some callings, too, opportunities are presented to influence the lives of large numbers of persons,—influences that may pass on from generation to generation.

Our lost friend, Miss Conlon, had many of those sterling qualities that show the dignity and grandeur of human personality, and through her calling she had golden opportunities to influence

*An address delivered at Walton High School, January 31, 1937.

for good, thousands and thousands of children during their most precious years.

Miss Conlon was an American—true and sincere in her devotion to American ideals and traditions.

She was a lady, to the manner born, in her carriage, her appearance and her dealings with others.

She was a true friend, quiet and unobtrusive in her friendship—a friend in good times and in bad times.

She emphasized the doctrine of effort—and taught pupils and teachers that although the harvest will follow the sowing, yet there will be no harvest unless those who desire to reap, sow the seed and care for the young plant with labor and forethought and intelligence; but she knew that children are fundamentally different and was quick to adapt school work to those of limited ability. One of her outstanding contributions was her success in establishing special classes for over-age pupils in junior high schools particularly for pupils who were not successful in academic subjects.

She believed in high standards and the will to attain them—she was not satisfied with mediocrity.

She demanded loyalty and a high degree of successful service of those who were associated with her—but she led the way. She never shirked or consulted her own ease nor asked anything of others which she would not do herself

and she was loyal to her pupils, her teachers, her colleagues, her profession.

She was a credit to womanhood and showed that a woman can hold her own on equal terms with men, in professional life.

She was an untiring and devoted worker—a dynamo of human energy—giving all she had—for the benefit of others.

She was a leader to her teachers and pupils—firm when firmness was necessary—just and honorable in all her actions, helpful, considerate, inspiring, a great force in a great cause. Her school was outstanding in every phase of sound secondary school administration.

She followed a well-thought-out and consistent philosophy of education which was progressive but sensible.

And now she has left us and we are lost awhile, but hope springs eternal in the human breast and our sorrow is assuaged by the thought of her great life and works.

Every human life is an adventure that must come to a close. Some adventures end suddenly, some disastrously; some are filled with great romance and high purpose and end quietly and gently after a life filled with honor and the regard of our fellow-men.

We pick up our burden and we carry it onward, not seeing clearly our goal, sometimes carry-

ing it over rough, thorny places, sometimes up steep inclines, sometimes through green pastures and beside still waters. Perhaps we receive a smile of appreciation on the way; perhaps we do not. Finally we come to the end of the road; and then we lay our burden down and the place that knew us once shall know us no more.

Certain it is that at the close of the life of Mary A. Conlon she could say that she carried her share of the burden of the day. She could meet her Master, reverently, face to face, serene in the consciousness of a life well spent, a task well done, and a reward well earned.

Let us, then, be hopeful and rejoice, though sad at our loss, that this woman has lived and worked among us, that we have known her, talked with her, rejoiced with her, sorrowed with her and she with us, that one in-

creasing purpose ran through all her work, to which she devoted her entire life,—and that she was spared long enough and was given the strength and courage to carry out that purpose in a magnificent manner. This wonderful school—this building—the spirit and ideals of the pupils, graduates and teachers, is her monument.

If, as one of the speakers has said, Miss Conlon's spirit is with us today, well may she say to us in the words of the poet:

"Have you found *your* life distasteful?

My life did and does smack sweet.

Was *your* youth of pleasure wasteful?

Mine I saved and hold complete.

Do *your* joys with age diminish?

When *mine* fail me, I'll complain.

Must in death *your* daylight finish?

My sun sets to rise again."

—ROBERT BROWNING,
"At the Mermaid."

The late JOHN S. ROBERTS,
Associate Superintendent.

PROGRAMMING A CITY HIGH SCHOOL

Programming a city school, one with approximately 8,000 pupils, is an enormous task when viewed from the outside, but with the perfected mechanics employed and with certain basic figures to commence with, the task, although cumbersome, is not impossible.

There are two general methods used in the actual programming of our city schools. These may be

called the subject method and the card method—that is, either assorting cards by subjects and programming a complete department, or programming all subjects on a complete card. At Abraham Lincoln High School, we prefer the subject method because we feel it gives us greater control. However, it is not the purpose of this article to discuss these two

methods. Both are well known and have advantages and disadvantages. My plan here is to show how, at our school, we reach our estimates of subject registers.

The method most commonly used to reach subject register estimates is the plus-minus method. Pupils are asked at about the mid-term period to elect tentative programs for the following term. Subject teachers are then asked to indicate by a plus or minus sign the probable success or failure of the pupils in the various subjects. The prefect or official teacher summarizes the results for his class, from which summaries a general school summary is made by the program committee. This method has been found to give fairly accurate results in a school employing it over a period of many years. However, the procedure entails a great deal of labor on the part of the teachers and it interferes to some extent with the school routine.

When the Abraham Lincoln High School was opened in 1930, we attempted to use this plus and minus method during the first term. Very poor results were obtained, perhaps because of the fact that many teachers were unfamiliar with this system. We immediately decided to drop this method and to attempt to make the estimates ourselves without requiring any teacher or chairman to prognosticate any figures. At first we fig-

ured that as most subjects were continuation subjects, the number passing any grade plus the number failing the next grade would give us fairly accurate results. Estimates of subjects that weren't continuous subjects were based on past experience. This method was used for several terms and gave us a fair, though not satisfying, degree of accuracy. The most common source of discrepancies was the fact that a large number of pupils dropped out of school between the time that the estimates were made and the opening of the new term. We found that we were organizing classes with beginning-of-term registers, which included pupils on register at the end of the previous term who did not report for the new term, whereas we were allotted teachers based on the average term registers (those at the close of the second month of the term). After much investigation, we evolved the method now in use, which we find very effective.

The plan used at present is based on the function concept. Every subject-grade in our curriculum (with very few exceptions) is based on some subject grade of the previous term. For example, investigation showed us that the English 2 figure on the budgetary report was approximately 99% of the previous term's English 1 figure. This percentage varied very little from term to term. The variation was taken care of by

averaging the percentages of the previous five terms and using the average for our estimates. Therefore, to estimate the register of English 2 for the following term, all we did was to take 99% of the English 1 figure on the budgetary report. It is simple to see that this procedure would work with continuation subjects like English, languages, and the upper terms of most subjects. However, continued investigation showed us a similar correlation between the budgetary registers of any subject and some subject of the previous term. For example, Chemistry 1 was always 40-45% of the previous term's English 2 figure; Elementary Algebra 1 (a second term subject) was approximately 65% of the previous term's Civics 1; Modern History 1 was approximately 60% of previous term's

English 4, and so on. Chart A below shows the subjects of the previous term upon which every subject in our curriculum depends. This chart also shows the percentages involved. It will be noted that these percentages are remarkably consistent. The fact that we work with a five-term average gives us a very dependable working figure. Further, the greatest discrepancies exist in some subjects with small registers where the difference of a few per cent involves a small number of pupils. Subjects such as Physics 1, whose registers remained fairly constant, did not need to be treated by this method, although, if necessary, we could undoubtedly find the subjects on which they depend. These subjects are marked "constant" in the chart on the next page.

Column A: Present Subject-Grade.
 Column B: Subject-Grade of last term on which present subject-grade is dependent.
 Column C: Five term average Sept. 1934—Sept. 1936 (inclusive).
 Column D: Actual average used for estimated figures, Feb. 1936.

CHART A

A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D
English	1	Entering Class		Hebrew	1	(Pres)		C. C.	1	Entering Class	
	2	E 1	99.1		2	(E 1)	13.0		2	C C 1	66.0
	3	E 2	144.5		3	H 1	98.5				61.8
	4	E 3	89.8		4	H 2	86.2		I. H.	1	Constant
	5	E 4	92.2		5	H 3	93.2				
	6	E 5	93.8		6	Constant			M. H.	1	E 4
	7	E 6	92.5			Constant			2	MH 1	58.6
	8	E 7	91.5			(Pres)			1	MH 2	90.9
Latin	1	(Pres)		Italian	1	(E 1)	12.1		1	AH 1	147.1
	2	(E 1)	11.2		2	I 1	92.8		2	Constant	144.2
	3	L 1	86.7		3	I 2	125.6		1	EG 1	89.4
	4	L 2	103.7		4	I 3	83.8		2	(E 6+)	75.0
	5	L 3	95.2		5	Constant			1	(E 7)	44.0
	6	Constant			6	Constant			2	Eco. 1	32.7
	7	Constant			7	Constant					42.1
	8	Constant			8	Constant			B. P.	1	Entering Class
French	1	(Pres)		Gen. Sc.	1	Entering Class			2	BP 1	91.1
	2	(E 1)	47.3		2	G.S. 1	87.5		1	BP 2	131.5
	3	F 1	100.2				87.2		2	Bk 1	85.6
	4	F 2	159.8	El. Bio.	1	Entering Class			3	Bk 2	65.0
	5	F 3	82.7		2	E.B. 1	93.7		4	Bk 3	78.9
	6	F 4	66.0				88.9		5	Constant	
	7	F 5	84.6	Ad. Bio.	1	E.B. 2	110.4		6	Constant	
	8	Constant			2	A.B. 1	81.7		1	Constant	
German	1	(Pres)		Physics	1	Constant			2	Constant	
	2	(E 1)	13.3		2	Constant			1	E. 7	32.2
	3	G 1	93.9	Chem.	1	E 2	38.4				31.9
	4	G 2	127.6		2	C 1	83.0		1	T 2	108.5
	5	G 3	84.0	Physiogr.	1	Constant			2	St 1	73.5
	6	G 4	52.3		2	Constant			3	St 2	70.00
		Constant	53.3			Constant			4	St 3	76.0
		(Pres)				Constant			1	Constant	66.7

A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D
Spanish	1	(E 1)	56.0	El. Alg.	1	CC 1	63.1		2	(E 1)	82.4
	2	S 1	86.1		2	EA 1	87.7		3	T 1	73.5
	3	S 2	80.4	Geom.	1	EA 2	150.9		4	T 2	93.9
	4	S 3	80.8		2	PG 1	90.9			(T 3 of)	
	5	Constant		Int. Alg.	1	PG 2	64.9		5	(2 terms)	
	6	Constant		Trig.		Constant				(ago)	63.9
Art	1	E 1	88.7	Adv. Alg.		Constant				Constant	67.6
	2	Art 1	96.3	So. 1 Geom.		Constant					
	3	Art 2	146.4								
	4	Art 3	93.6								
Music	1	Entering Class									
	2	Mus. 1	96.6								
	3	Mus. 2	154.6								
	4	Postponed to term									
Boys											
Health Ed.	1	Entering class									
	2	H E 1	97.1								
	3	H E 2	170.1								
	4	H E 3	96.1								
	5	H E 4	105.7								
	6	H E 5	93.2								
	7	H E 6	98.9								
	8	H E 7	92.1								
Girls											
Health Ed.	1	Entering Class									
	2	H E 1	91.6								
	3	H E 2	180.6								
	4	H E 3	97.1								
	5	H E 4	103.1								
	6	H E 5	85.3								
	7	H E 6	100.1								
	8	H E 7	101.6								

All other subjects in curriculum as Major Art, Major Music, Art Weaving, Cooking, Sewing, Shop, etc., have constant registers.

Note: When subjects marked "constant" will begin to vary, some correlated subject will be found.

The above method took care of all subject-grades except those of the first term. These were treated in a slightly different manner. The estimates of English 1 and of other subjects which catered exclusively to first-term pupils were based on those of the entering class. All other estimates of first-term subjects which were not limited to first-term pupils were based on this English 1 estimate. For example, French 1, consisting of first and second language pupils, always seemed to have about 45% of the English 1 register of the same term, so that once we estimated the figure for English 1, approximately 45% of this figure gave us our French 1 figure. Again using a five-term average, we obtained very dependable results. In Chart A, exclusive first-term subjects are marked "entering class," whereas others are marked "present English 1."

In estimating our entering class, we found that the September class was always larger than the February class. In fact, our February entering class gave us a fairly good estimate of what to expect in September, and vice versa. This figure was frequently checked by communicating with the main Elementary and Junior High Schools from which we drew our students. We checked the sizes of their graduating classes and compared them with previous classes. We also took into consideration any changes

of conditions such as change in boundary lines, and the like. Our experience shows us fairly accurate results.

All this, of course, was subject to changes in requirements for graduation. When this occurred, our figures had to be revised. However, this change in requirement was usually known in advance and so the change in estimate could be taken care of in advance.

We needed one other estimate to help us organize the school: the progress grade estimate. This is important in a large school because of the necessity of dividing the school into two or more sessions. The method used was similar to the method used in obtaining our subject-class figures. We noticed that the size of any progress grade of one term was a certain percentage of the previous progress grade of the previous term. We used these percentages to obtain our estimates.

Is our method effective? The proof is in the results. In Chart B below is shown the actual and estimated number of classes in four representative departments. Naturally, certain discrepancies arise between estimates and actual figures. But then the discrepancies are slight and are easily taken care of by our subject-method of programming. This control, which I mentioned at the beginning of the article, is the great advantage of

this method of programming. Programming one department at a time, we can easily abolish a class in one grade and in its place create one in another grade where needed. (e. g. two English 1's and one English 7 were dropped and one English 3, one English 4, one

English 5, and one English 6 were created, as shown in Chart B). The total classes for the department remain either the same or change very slightly. Before we can make changes, however, we ascertain whether our teacher allotment can take care of them.

CHART B

September, 1937
No. of Classes

Av. Size of				Av. Size of					
Subject	Estimate	Actual	Class	Subject	Estimate	Actual	Class		
English	1	9	7	35.7	C. C.	1	8	7	38.0
	2	14	14	34.6	Int. Hist.	2	2	2	37.0
	3	30	31	37.6	Md. Hist.	1	17	18	37.7
	4	30	31	39.9		2	18	18	36.7
	5	27	28	36.6	Am. Hist.	1	26	27	35.5
	6	29	30	37.1		2	19	20	36.6
	7	24	23	38.7	C. C.	2	12	11	37.0
	8	22	22	37.3	EC Geo.	1	4	5	39.0
		185	186			2	3	3	34.7
Gen. Sci.	1	6	4	36.3	Eco.	1	21	19	40.3
	2	7	7	35.6		2	5	7	39.7
Chem.	1	8	10	36.7			135	137	
	2	9	9	37.7	Sten.	1	14	15	37.6
Physiog.	1	3	3	34.0		2	12	12	37.3
	2	2	2	40.0		3	8	8	37.4
Physics	1	3	2	39.5		4	7	6	34.0
	2	2	2	31.0	Sec. Pr.	1	2	2	40.0
El. Bio.	1	5	4	37.8		2	1	1	33.0
	2	7	6	39.5	Type	1	13	12	37.2
Ad. Bio.	1	12	13	39.2		2	10	10	35.8
	2	11	12	36.2		3	12	12	38.3
		75	74			4	9	9	36.3
						5	7	6	34.0
							95	93	

Other methods may show similarly efficient results, but even more important than the efficacy of this method is the fact that the teachers are relieved of an enormous amount of clerical work. The teachers have nothing to do with estimates or primary cards. In fact, they are not disturbed with

the following term's program and are not aware of the fact that it is being worked on until a few days before the week of Regents examinations. At that time, all that the pupils need do is to fill in the general information asked for, including present program, and elect Health Education, Hy-

WHAT MARGIE AND JOE THINK ABOUT SCHOOL

It is about time that the myth of the whining school boy creeping like a snail to school be dispelled. In its place must be accepted the new *entente cordiale* between teacher and student. Why should a boy of today glance longingly at an enticing pond on his way to school? For the most part he lives in cities where ponds are few and far between. And if there is one, as like as not, his teacher will take the entire class there, equipped with mother's soup strainer, to have a magnificent time searching for wrigglers, shiners and crawfish.

But a theory is one thing, a fact another. The opportunity to prove my point occurred when an ex-teacher of science let loose a blast upon the school in the December, 1936 issue of *The Forum*. In an opus entitled "What is a Teacher Worth?" Dr. Jean Ricochet Boyd averred that as a general thing most teachers are overpaid, and that the school signally fails to accomplish what it sets out to do.

As I read the article, I found loop-hole after loop-hole in his argument. But that, I thought, was hardly strange. After all, I am a teacher and it does not take a course in dialectic materialism to understand that the side upon which one's bread is buttered is

the only correct side. So I decided to select representative excerpts, selections which would be a sort of miniature digest of the article, mimeograph and present them to my classes.

Next, taking my students by surprise, I gave them the digest to read as a homework assignment. But before distributing it I made no plea urging them to come to the aid of their anxious teacher. I told them to write exactly what they thought about the truth of the excerpts and that in the interests of impartiality they might or might not sign their papers. Also, beneath each excerpt, I had placed one or more questions to help them in organizing their answers. In framing these, I tried to avoid giving them a leading character.

As for my conclusions, I shall not try to present results of a statistical nature; all I can do is to present representative opinions of the students with some brief interpolations of my own.

Here is the first excerpt:

Always in every class were one or two or three—no more—who learned easily and were really interested. The others were full of mistaken ideas, plain blank ignorance, total lack of any real understanding—it was incredible. In tests of

in major subjects, those meeting five times a week, are set in the first week.

We have not sacrificed the consideration of the needs of individual pupils to the gods of efficiency. The method of estimating used does not prevent the formation of special classes. In fact, it aids them because our master chart for any term is ready early in the previous term and so we are able to consider more carefully the formation and placing of special classes requested by the various chairmen. The number of such classes in our school is proof that the first consideration of our organization is the child.

In conclusion, we feel that the primary function of a teacher is to teach. We know that a certain amount of clerical work must be done by all teachers. Any method of organization which helps relieve the teacher of some of this work and at the same time is efficient and does not harm the child's welfare is one worthy of consideration. We haven't the perfect method, but we are striving by constant changes to improve.

I. BERT LEVINE.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

giene, Music and Art Appreciation (nothing else) for the following term. On the Monday following Regent's week, the prefect teacher enters the pupils' final grades in all subjects on this card, and at that time the pupils, knowing of their success or failure in the various subjects, elect next term's program. The pupils have, during the term, been interviewed by program advisers or grade advisers and given instruction and information about future programs. Our advising system (reported in *HIGH POINTS*, January, 1934) lends itself very effectively to helping pupils elect their new programs. We feel that an election made when the pupils have definite knowledge of their present term's success or failure, is a more intelligent election than one made during the term. Experience shows us that this is so. Requests for changes in program at the beginning of a term have been cut down from more than a thousand to a few hundred. Most of these requests are made by seniors who have to fulfill certain requirements for graduation. This has eased our problem of equalization at the beginning of the term and has permitted us to get started very quickly. In fact, our classes

physics many of the answers were plainly idiotic; they did did not even make sense.

- a. What do you think of the truth of the above?
- b. What might he have done to increase the interest of his students in the subject he taught?

Sixteen year old Gabriel Godman, an excellent student of biology, writes in answer to the above:

I don't think the quotation is at all true. In general, I should say that students are well-meaning and generally interested if the subject is at all well-taught. Of course, most of them cannot be very bright.

But assuming that this teacher's students were uninterested, what could have been the reason for it? Well, it may have been that they were compelled to take up something for which they had no real interest or use. But the teacher could have made a real effort to sell them the subject.

An unknown, calling himself by the cognomen of "Mr. Khayyam," expresses the prevailing sentiment of the students when he writes:

I think the statement should have been worded like this: Always in every class were one or two or three—no more—who didn't learned (sic) easily and weren't really interested.

And now, for the second excerpt:

The main difficulty was in preserving order. Every second kid seemed to be nothing but a roughneck. Fully three-fourths of my energy had to be used in maintaining some kind of discipline, with one-fourth left for, presumably, teaching. It was like sitting on the lid of a box containing wildcats; ease up the least little bit and their paws would be in the seat of your pants.

Three or four hoodlums can completely demoralize a class. If these few can be kicked out of a class it is not so bad. One top sergeant from the regular army, given the necessary authority, could have solved the whole asinine mess in a day.

- a. How many classes do you remember where the above was true?
- b. Could the teacher, Mr. Boyd, have solved his problem of discipline in any other way without calling out the army?

Charles Green asserts:

It is entirely true that two or three hoodlums can completely demoralize a class. Give some people the slightest leeway and they will take advantage to the utmost. The innocent suffer and the teacher is distraught. However, the teacher should never curb innocent horseplay

since the students will become resentful and may even develop complexes. I advocate that Mr. Boyd should laugh along with his students and cultivate their friendship.

Joseph Peikes asseverates:

Mr. Boyd should have used a little manly or womanly tact and his troubles would have been all over.

A fine lad is Seymour Goldstein whose heart lies with the basketball team. He diagnoses Mr. Boyd's difficulties as follows:

What Mr. Boyd did was to allow himself to be the underdog but once. After that his classes lost respect for him and he was *through*.

And again, we end our discussion of this excerpt with a representative opinion; this one from the occult pen of "Ram Tah, the magician."

I have had a few classes like that, but that was long ago when I went to the elementary school. When the teacher succeeded in quieting the rowdies in those classes, he was really doing something for the community. But in most of my classes, the teacher has to yell once or twice real seriously and everyone is as quiet as a lamb. And the teacher doesn't really have to yell. A quiet heart-to-heart talk will usually rescue the wrongdoer.

Excerpt number three:

In the end, I did not even try to teach the simple stuff of the textbooks written for high schools. They were too difficult for the students. I settled down, finally, to the dull, stupid, insipid routine of the rest of the high school. I expected nothing and got nothing.

- a. Do you find high school dull? If so—why? If not, what are some factors that make it worth while?

A student who feels strongly on the subject of home assignments ends on a note of laughter reminiscent of Pagliacci:

I find high school worthwhile because it gives me something to do to keep my mind and body in the pink of condition. But sometimes its your hard luck to come across a teacher who treats you like a baby and gives you hours and hours of homework. That happened to me this term. I keep on doing it although it's driving me crazy. If teachers had to do the same amount of homework that they give the students, it would be a different story. Some day, they'll pass a law making teachers do homework and then I'll laugh, Ha! Ha!

Sam Ehrlich turns not only legalistic but juridical in his comment.

Yes—I find high school dull. The same routine day after day.

The same faces, the same dull teachers who do not understand that there is a higher law than the laws of the school—the Law of Humanity. Why should our parents have to sign our report cards, for example. In college, they don't get report cards. Students should be allowed to leave their classrooms, also, to get a little fresh air. Checking on "cutting" could easily be done. If the principal wants my plan, he can have it within three days.

Snub-nosed Herman Eisenman, faithful attendant of the chalk and erasers, answers:

My feeling towards high school changes with the wind, so to speak. I sometimes feel grudgingly towards my teachers for the amount of homework I get, but that's only a small part of school. If I pass all my subjects I feel great and have many thoughts in my mind for the future. If I fail, all my thoughts are visa versa (sic) and I hate the very thought of school.

The fourth excerpt:

In history it was dates and battles and so on; no mention of the influence of geography, the pressure of population, the effect of inventions; and it was all very patriotic—the brave and honest Americans against the cowardly and swinish British and Mexicans. In modern

languages there were French, Spanish, German—two or three years of them, but not one single student, so far as I could find out, could honestly read or write or understand any foreign language he had learned in school.

a. What do you think of the criticism that has been made of the teaching of history. Is it true of your school?

b. Of languages?

First we call upon our heavy artillery, Gabriel Godman, from whom we have already heard. His rolling rhetoric may well be a heritage from his father, rabbi and principal of a Hebrew school.

I take exception with the author. His criticism, again, is not only stupid and unfounded but shows an obvious absence of scientific research and a clear prejudice. I, for one, am not only interested in foreign languages but have been trying to perfect myself by correspondence with friends in Europe. I know that this may not be true of most students, but I know quite a few who have been corresponding regularly.

A young lady who handed in her paper unsigned, writes:

Of course, in the teaching of history, much depends upon the individual teacher. Mine have always, and I mean always, tried to point out the defects as

well the worthwhile aspects of our countries' acts. But I have friends whose history teachers are straight-laced conservatives who won't stand for the least tiny criticism against our country.

Lillian Unger holds to Mr. Boyd's opinion:

I have taken three years of French and can say very nicely, "If the weather is nice, I shall take a walk," but I should be scared to death to have to enter a French restaurant and order a meal. But still a foreign language is lovely to study, it is a new interest, something different, something colorful.

James Gokchoff:

The author should wake up to what is being taught in school today. In history, instead of battles and dates, we learn about highly important economic and social facts, something that we all need to know in later life as intelligent citizens.

Finally, a word from Mariano Pistorino:

The statement about a language is false. Before I learned Italian here at James Monroe High School, I could speak very little with my father and mother whose native tongue is the Sicilian dialect. Now that I have taken Italian for a year and a half, we talk so much

at the table that we never finish eating.

The fourth excerpt:

My wife is almost unconscious that there is such a division of human knowledge as geography. She doesn't know if St. Louis, for instance, is on Lake Michigan or on the Gulf of Mexico. One day she asked me if in going from Pittsburgh to Washington, one would pass through Boston; yet she has been in all these towns, in fact, has lived in Washington three years.

Does this mean that my wife is some sort of imbecile. Positively not. This sublime ignorance of geography—just precisely what difference has it made to her? The answer is that it has made precisely no difference whatsoever. Geography is for aviators, ship captains, map-makers and diplomats, and all others who want or need to know about it.

a. What do you think about the author's belief that ignorance of geography will never harm his wife?

Declares William Westcott who apparently subscribes to the *kinder*, *küche* and *kirche* doctrines of woman's place:

Certainly ignorance of geography will do her no harm. Her place is in the home; she's not going to travel all over the world.

Mary Rullo thinks otherwise:

A person who wants to travel, and who doesn't, must know where he or she is going and how to get there. If you don't, you will be stranded in one place all your life for fear of getting lost. Won't that be fun?

Another:

If I had a wife like that, I would never let go of her hand or she would never find her way back. But I don't believe that Mr. Boyd's wife is as much of an imbecile as he makes her out to be. I'd think twice before I'd tell everybody such things about my wife.

Finally, we hear from Lillian Unger:

In social circumstances, her ignorance of geography will harm her. While others are talking about geography, she will sit there, a wallflower, lonely, with nobody to talk to. And now, for the last excerpt:

I told them that it was their own funeral if they did not study; that it made no difference to be personally whether they learned anything or not.

I wanted to see the effect of my speech. The next day I asked a boy why he didn't make some slight effort to get along and to do better. The answer was illuminating. He said, "Well, Mr. Boyd, you told us that you were not interested in

us. So why should we study? What's the use?"

I really didn't know which of the two, he or I, was the bigger fool—he for having no sense or I for expecting him to have sense.

a. What do you think of the sense of the student?

b. Of Mr. Boyd's sense?

From the east comes an illuminating answer, this time from "Abdul, the Bulbul Ameer." (The glee club has been singing a song with that title.)

The present idea is all wrong. Teachers never fail but students do. Why, I don't know. If poor teachers like Mr. Boyd would worry about each student separately, the toupee business would flourish.

Seymour Goldstein, from whom we have already heard, replies:

Mr. Boyd's sense is very childish. He was given a job to do and he wasn't doing it. The trouble is simply this: Mr. Boyd teaches for monetary purposes and not for the betterment of youth. That is bad.

And a concluding observation from Gabriel Godman:

The student is shortsighted. But that, of course, is forgivable in a young person. In fact, that is one of the reasons for which he is sent to school. We do not expect him to have the intelligence of an adult—or of some adults, on second

thought. Mr. Boyd does not seem to recognize his duty of helping the willing students, and there are many of them in each class, at all times; to keep his sense of humor and to be fair. Perhaps this is difficult but it has been done and is being done by countless teachers who are "carrying on the good fight."

II.

What is significant is not that Dr. Boyd's arguments have been effectively disposed of by the students but that here, in a particular school, the youngsters have demonstrated a real entente cordiale embracing themselves and those who teach. The point of view of the student and teacher merged not through discipline imposed from above but through a sincerely thought out argument based on the common sense of the adolescent. So much is significant.

Lack of space does not permit me to answer Dr. Boyd's arguments in detail. I believe that what he has written should be considered as the rationalization of a Ph.D. compelled to deal with actual young people who will not fit into the logical test tubes of his mind. His kind we have met before. Pink from the university, he sets foot in the high school with the smell of the laboratory upon him. He sees before him not potential typists, grocers and dentists but white-smocked scientists. He looks upon Margie and

Joe seated before him and realizes not the earthly ambit of their desires, their movies, parties, friendships, their uncertainties and hopes. For he prefers them as mirror-images of himself, disciplines of the laboratory, ministrants of guinea pigs and devotees of graphs.

At first these Phi Beta Kappas walk a little dreamily through the noisy corridors of the high school; nothing seems to touch them; they dwell upon their unfinished experiments in the university. Administrative assistants hesitate to speak to them concerning delayed attendance reports and other details, such is the awe in which they are held. Ordinary teachers have been known to blush and stammer in their presence as who would not in the presence of such extraordinary intellectual attainments.

Soon nostalgia settles upon them, a longing for their true spiritual home, the university. They become genuinely unhappy, besides being annoyed by the harvest of discipline problems that arise. But they never harbor the vain ambition to come down to the level of their students; that Margie or Joe's restiveness might be the result of their bringing in undigested chunks from the works of specialists is a thought that never occurs to them. They never forget themselves so far as to simplify their teaching; it is much

easier to accuse their students of idiocy.

And as time goes on, their busy minds begin to construct magnificent rationales for giving up teaching; the clamor, the disorder, the questioning stemming from the logic of the immature, the shades that never work, the lesson plans, the necessity for making

nyc schools

THE FIRST SCHOOLMASTER IN NEW YORK

Despite the numerous anxieties and uncertainties which beset them when they embarked upon the hazardous undertaking of settling in the New World, our early Dutch forbears did not overlook what had always been to them a serious consideration—the education of their children. “Neither the perils of war, nor the busy pursuit of gain, nor the excitement of political strife ever caused them to neglect the duty of educating their offspring.” From almost the earliest beginnings provision was made for teachers, as well as for ministers of the church, to accompany the settlers to New Amsterdam.

We have today in our city a staff of more than 35,000 teachers. It might be of some interest to them to know something of the personality and of the character of the man who, after all, was the forerunner of so great and long a line in the task of educating the young people of this city—the first schoolmaster of New York, Adam Roelantsen. His ca-

attendance reports, all these enter into their considerations.

And sooner—if they can afford it—or later, they give up high school teaching, return to the university and in their spare moments write an opus entitled “What is a Teacher Worth?”

LEON NORDAU DIAMOND,
James Monroe High School.

reer, as we turn back the pages of history, might seem to us today to have been more suited to a rôle in a comic opera than to the classroom.

Succeeding generations have bestowed little honor on the early Dutch schoolmasters of New Amsterdam—either as scholars or pedagogues. It was probably as true there as elsewhere for many years afterward that men with little or no aptitude for teaching used the profession merely as a stepping-stone to more prominent or more lucrative careers. However that may be, it fell to the lot of the early Dutch inhabitants here to make a conspicuously unfortunate choice in their first schoolmaster. It is extremely likely that the unsavory record of Adam Roelantsen's career was, in a large measure, responsible for the poor reputation of his successors in the eyes of later generations.

Unfortunately we know almost nothing regarding Roelantsen as a teacher. His methods of teaching, discipline and scholastic ability are

a closed chapter to us, except what we may inferentially deduce from the knowledge we have of his successors. He probably differed very little from these mediocrities as far as training and aptitude is concerned. There is however a considerable amount of data available regarding his private life outside the classroom—and this, mainly from the minutes of the court records of the times. We can, perhaps, surmise a good deal from these as to the type of teacher he must have been.

It is not definitely known when he began and terminated his service as schoolmaster. Some authorities claim that the first free school in America, with Roelantsen at the head, was established during the year of his arrival in New Amsterdam, 1633. Others maintain that he did not begin to teach until 1638. The difference in the dates is important only in the discussion which raged many years later over the question as to which of the early colonies could claim the honor of having established the first school in our history. Adherents of the Boston Latin School, which was established in 1635, claim for it the honor of being the oldest school in America. However, inasmuch as Roelantsen's school still exists today in Manhattan as the School of the Collegiate Reformed Dutch Church, and if the earlier date 1633 is accepted, it would seem that our

city is entitled to the honor of primacy in the field of education.

The first schoolmaster's salary was not a very large one. It amounted to 360 florins a year, or about \$144 in our money. He could not have taught many pupils since he conducted his classes in his home which, in all probability, was little different from the small, crude log cabins of the other original settlers. The house stood where Stone Street in downtown Manhattan now is. Some time elapsed before a more regular and permanent site for the education of their youngsters could be determined upon by the Dutch burghers of the little town. Efforts to build a permanent school house were really not made until about 1642 after Roelantsen had been relieved of his duties. But the financial difficulties which confronted the young colony were so pressing that time and again funds collected for that purpose had to be diverted to other communal uses, especially for protection and defense against the ever-present Indian menace. It seems that as late as 1647 the citizens of New Amsterdam complained to the Dutch West India Company that no school house had yet been built and that “the school is kept very irregularly, by this or that, according to his fancy, as long as he sees fit.” In all likelihood, it was not until after the English took over New Amsterdam that a definite domicile for

the "oldest school in America" was established.

To go back, however: our first schoolmaster was born in Dockum, or Dokkum, in northern Holland and came to New Amsterdam in 1633 at the age of 27. He seems to have developed, even at that tender age, an amazing predilection for litigious scrapes and entanglements which kept him involved with his neighbors for the next twenty years or so and which provide us with practically all the information we have of him.

It appears that he was married twice, his first wife being a well-to-do widow with a daughter. This marriage evidently brought, for a time only, some measure of alleviation to a career that was a constant struggle to make both ends meet. It was, incidentally, this venture which later brought him into his first lawsuit. It appears that one Cors Pretersen, his step-daughter's husband, sued the town schoolmaster for the balance of the patrimony due him and unlawfully withheld by the latter. In deciding the case, the court ordered Roelantsen to make restitution to the sum of 12 florins, 10 stivers, or about five dollars in present-day money.

The strange character of the man seemed to rise to the surface at about this time. There are no doubt some people, probably by nature of quarrelsome dispositions, who seem endowed with

inordinate propensities toward litigation. But the like of Adam Roelantsen, I venture to say, is rarely ever seen. Perhaps it was the time and the environment he lived in. Small towns are notorious for their gossips and rumor-mongers. Perhaps it was the spying nature of the man himself. He evidently seemed quite fond of prying into his neighbors' affairs and then broadcasting his observations to the world at large—that is, in New Amsterdam.

At any rate he became a party to a series of slander suits which were rather startling in their complications. It seemed that Roelantsen had on a former occasion in company stated that "he did not care about the country or the council." This utterance being subsequently publicly reported by one of his listeners, he at once sued the reporter. He lost. In his chagrin apparently, he brought suit against three other people whose only offense appeared to be that they had testified against him at the earlier trial. Two of these defendants turned around and brought counter-suits against him. In one of the latter suits, he admitted, "in the presence of the court that he (Roelantsen) hath nothing to say against the plaintiff and knows and esteems him to be an honest man." Our schoolmaster here evidently apologized before judgment was rendered against him, in order to avoid any

monetary penalty for his offense. In the second of these counter-suits, both parties were evidently found guilty of slander, being "condemned each to pay twenty-five stivers (50 cents) to the poor." The third man slandering him was found guilty and received the same punishment.

His comparatively poor score in this series evidently did not deter Roelantsen or teach him to hold his tongue. Somewhat later, both he and a woman named Blanche Ael were "ordered to cease slandering one another on pain of being fined." In a still later case he was forced to pay two florins, 10 stivers (about \$1), to the poor after admitting that he knew nothing against the plaintiff's wife and nevertheless had slandered her.

Besides a ready tongue, it is evident from the record that Adam Roelantsen was a man of parts. The piece of litigation which has aroused most interest in his career was that which showed that he took in washing while exercising his duties as teacher. In 1640, it appears that he sued one Gilles De Voocht on an unpaid bill after having washed his linen. The defense simply stated that the agreement was for services to be done for a year and that inasmuch as the year was not up, Roelantsen could not collect. The court so held. Despite assumptions that this proved Roelantsen could not get

along on his meager salary, it seems more likely that New York's first schoolmaster conducted a laundry business as a sideline.

In 1646 during his absence on a trip to Holland, his wife died leaving four children with nobody to look after them. The city fathers were compelled to appoint four neighbors as guardians for them until their father returned. He no sooner did, than he was arrested on two charges. One was for a violation of the customs laws and the other a new slander charge for something he had said in Holland. Luck however was with him at this time. He was the victor in both cases.

Immediately after, however, he was again involved in a legal tangle. This time it was the captain of the ship on which he had returned who sued for his passage money. Roelantsen's defense was that it had been agreed to give him free passage provided he worked his way across and said his prayers. He evidently was able to produce evidence to prove that he had done both, for he won this case too.

During that same year he reached the lowest point of degradation in his career. His worst offense, a criminal assault upon a neighbor's wife, was committed in December 1646. Evidently the patience of the authorities was just about exhausted. It was felt that such conduct was intolerable and

that erstwhile town schoolmaster (his service is believed to have been terminated in 1642) was condemned "to be taken to the place where justice is usually executed and there to be scourged with rods and then to be banished as an example to others." But this sentence was never carried out. The fact that it was winter and that his motherless children would be left alone caused the authorities to postpone its execution. The turbulent political situation at the time, involving the removal of the unsavory Kieft and the appointment of Peter Stuyvesant as his successor caused Roelantsen's case to be forgotten, with the result that he never was punished for his terrible offense.

Under the new regime fortune seemed for a time to favor him. He was, strangely enough, appointed to assist as provost in the administration of justice. It was not long, however, before he became again involved—this time with his superior officer. It appears that he was ordered to stand watch at a tavern door while his chief was inside. The good cheer and merriment available within evidently proved too much for him. He deserted his post and entered. His superior spying him, asked him why he did not remain outside and keep watch as he was ordered. When Roelantsen replied that there was nothing to keep watch over the provost

shouted, "Throw the blackguard out of doors." Roelantsen soon found himself outside.

A few years later, he entered upon another phase of his checkered career. His occupation in 1653, according to court records, appears to have been that of a wood cutter. In that year, one Stoffel Elzers was charged with having "called Adam Roelantsen, the woodcutter, from his work and then attacked and beat him on the public street." Elzers probably received just provocation for his action for the court released him on his own recognizance.

The last instance of litigation in which Roelantsen appeared occurred shortly after and seems to indicate that he had again changed his mode of living.

He was sued on a bill for some pork which he admitted receiving but did not pay for because it was bad. Being evidently a dealer in meats, he had sold it to one Luycas Eldersen who refused payment because of its condition. The court found against Roelantsen, whereupon he in turn sued Eldersen for his damages and recovered.

From this time on, this extraordinary character, who has the honor of having been the first schoolmaster in this city, disappears from the records. One can perhaps easily comprehend now how a reputation such as he held could besmirch and befoul the characters of the men who succeeded

him. People are too often prone to regard the group in the light of the individual representing it. His career becomes all the more amazing and exasperating perhaps when one realizes that the duties of the schoolmaster as set forth in his commission were as follows: "To promote religious worship, to read a portion of the Word of God to the people, to endeavor as much as possible to bring them

up in the ways of the lord, to console them in their sickness, and to conduct himself with all diligence and fidelity in his calling so as to give others a good example as becometh a devout, pious, and worthy consoler of the sick, church-clerk, Precenter and Schoolmaster."

BENJ. EDWARDS.

Eastern District High School.

METHODOLOGY OF THE JAMES MONROE HONOR SCHOOL, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO FIRST YEAR CLASSES*

The pupils in our Honor School have been selected by our Guidance Department according to methods which are recognized to be the best available means of selection. All the pupils chosen are superior to the norm in their ability to do academic work. They possess superior reading ability and have shown on tests their capacity for abstract thinking. Other assets which these pupils reveal in the classroom are: they like to read; they like to contribute to class discussion; they are alert; they are interested in academic work.

Our experience has shown that they are apt to possess certain faults: restlessness; lack of power of concentration; inaccuracy; laziness;

a tendency to jump to conclusions, or to anticipate, not always correctly, what the teacher will say; impatience with details; poor habits of study.

The possession of such unfavorable qualities does not mean that a pupil does not belong in the Honor School.

We may place the blame on the child's previous training, if we wish, but we ought, rather, as soon as possible, to begin building the desirable qualities which we find lacking, and eradicating the undesirable qualities they possess. At the age at which a pupil enters high school, his habits may still be modified; he is not yet "too old to change." When the child enters the new high school environment, the time is suitable to begin inculcating new habits, since the child comes prepared to have

*This paper was written as part of a plan to establish a basic point of view and a consistent policy in the Honor School of the James Monroe High School.

new things expected of him, as he expects also to learn new things.

Undoubtedly it would be much easier for us to eliminate from the group pupils revealing certain deficiencies, and give ourselves the pleasure of working with pupils that had already developed desirable qualities of concentration, accuracy and so forth, and who therefore needed us least. Our purpose in segregating apt pupils is to give them the attention they require to develop the ability which, without that attention, might not otherwise function fully.

The Honor School as at present organized is a method, not a reward. Pupils did not ask to be put into it. They were assigned on the basis of placement tests. *They have the capacity to learn.* There is no guarantee that they have already learned desirable habits or attitudes. But they can be taught.

It is not easier to teach pupils in the Honor School than normal pupils. Perhaps it is more difficult. Knowing that these pupils have the capacity to learn, we cannot help feeling a certain responsibility in seeing to it that they do learn. This is not to ignore factors other than ability that influence learning.

It is interesting to recall Morrison's "mastery formula," recommended as a guide for teaching procedure: "Pretest, teach, test, adapt procedure (i.e., reteach), re-

test, to the point of learning." We should not be impatient of the pupils because they do not learn as quickly as we think they ought to. We may have our own standards of what honor pupils ought to be, and if we exalt these standards far enough we will find that few or none of the pupils will measure up to them. All we shall gain by this procedure is the theoretic satisfaction of stating (with no proof other than our own opinion), "These are not honor pupils."

Our object in organizing the Honor School is not to set up a theoretical standard in order to eliminate those who do not meet it. It is the more constructive one of developing potentialities where they exist.

If a pupil who, according to his ability, is expected to do good work fails to do so, we ought to try to find what factor is preventing him from learning.

1. Inattentiveness may have been the reason for his not hearing the teacher's initial explanation. We may take a moral tone and say that he should have paid attention. But this is probably the first time in his school life that he has had to do more than listen a fraction of the time in order to follow a lesson. In an unselected group in the elementary school he may have gotten along very well by day dreaming all period and attending to the work

during the first or last five minutes of the period. This habit needs correction. That is our job. We ought not to take a discouraged attitude and say, "What can we do with a twelve- or thirteen-year-old who has not even developed such-and-such qualities?"

2. Lack of the power of concentration has been found to be a common fault. Immaturity may be the cause. As long as the elementary schools skip bright pupils, we shall continue to get bright immature pupils in the high school. We cannot make children grow by stretching them. If they are immature, we shall have to reckon with their immaturity in our teaching procedures, in the types of appeal we use in stimulating interest, in the types of response we are justified in expecting from them.

3. Insufficient drill may account for poor results. The bright pupil may grasp the initial presentation of a lesson so easily that the teacher is led to believe he understands it completely, and neglects to give sufficient drill. There is no justification for thinking that these pupils do not require drill. The drill may be more varied, more interesting, faster-moving, but it may not be omitted, or even reduced in quantity. Drill is even more necessary with these pupils than with others because the initial learning required less effort, therefore less attention, and

less time; hence, it may be more easily forgotten.

4. The pupil may be afraid of the teacher. In several cases where pupils had been doing poorly, failing examinations, or responding poorly in class, interviews with the pupils resulted in a characteristic response: "I understand it when I am at home, but when the teacher asks me a question in class, I get scared and don't know what to answer." Or, "I get nervous and forget the answer." In one case, reported by the school psychologist, a pupil who was failing in algebra said, "I never know when to add and when to subtract." It may have been quite indefensible for the child not to know what the teacher had undoubtedly explained, but granted that he did not know, the result of reteaching would probably be learning; and one particular point not learned may have been the cause of a considerable amount of difficulty.

5. Lack of self-confidence may act as a sort of paralyzing force. After the elementary school, in which he shone easily and won praise for his work, the pupil suddenly finds himself confronted with a more severe standard, and his confidence is shaken in his own ability. This is particularly true when the teacher uses the convenient weapon of the comment, "And you are supposed to be an Honor Pupil." There is

no justification for this comment. It makes the pupil feel guilty for being in a classification which he is not responsible for creating. It places on him a burden which he did not seek, and will certainly result in an aura of unpleasantness which will become attached to the idea of school for the very pupils for whom school should be a pleasant experience. *No normal boy or girl wants to live at that high ethical plane where he must stand in constant fear of reproach because he is not doing as well as expected.* We have organized the school especially to prevent such strain. The Year Plan is followed, so that even in cases where a pupil is apparently not maintaining himself, he will remain in the Honor School for a year. It is expected that during this time the teachers will diagnose the difficulty, make efforts to adjust the work, the method, the type of approach, and the like, to the individual needs, and effect an improvement, that is, release the child's native powers. Attitudes of laziness or indifference, habits of inaccuracy and lack of concentration, may be present. *That is why we give ourselves an entire year to correct them.*

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROCEDURE IN FIRST YEAR HONOR CLASSES

1. Such comments as: "And this is an Honor Class," or "And you are supposed to be an honor pu-

pil," should never be used. There is no more justification for them than for telling a dull pupil that he is stupid.

2. Diagnosis of individual difficulties will be worth the trouble it takes.

3. Rate of progress should be based upon class performance, not upon the teacher's theoretic idea of how fast an Honor Class ought to go.

4. It has been the experience of many teachers that, in the beginning, an Honor Class progresses more slowly than a normal class. This is due to the fact that honor pupils are apt to see implications in what is presented that other pupils do not, and they wish to talk all around the question. They wish to make observations which may not always be apposite, and find relationships between what they are learning and what they have learned or read in the past. The teacher may capitalize this readiness of observation by skillfully directing it into correct channels, without discouraging the pupil's desire to contribute actively to the lesson.

5. Drill should be plentiful. It should be based upon diagnosed difficulties experienced by the pupil.

6. Minimum assignments and optional additional assignments should be made a regular part of the procedure in every class, so that the ambitious pupil may

have at least one volunteer assignment in each subject to look forward to each week.

7. Capitalize the pupil's good reading ability by making the additional reading, where this type of work is possible or suitable.

8. The minimum passing standard should not be raised. To say, "In an ordinary class, this might be accepted, but in this class I expect more of you" is cruel to the pupil and will make him find the Honor School irksome. It is possible to find more pedagogically sound methods of stimulating ambition and effort. A high standard should be maintained, and can be maintained, in a class where pupils are academically-minded. The level of marks should be high. Marks cannot be distributed on the principle of the normal curve, since this is not an unselected group. All these pupils are capable of earning high marks. It is the teacher's task so to teach them that they do realize their capabilities. And when they have done so, the teacher should reward achievement with the high marks the pupils earn. Fully-realized potentialities for these pupils will mean superior achievement. *Mark honor pupils on the basis of the same standard as that used for the*

normal school. Since their ability is superior, the results will necessarily be better, in the measure in which the teacher has been successful in his work.

9. Teachers should concentrate in the first year on the inculcation of habits of accuracy, observation, methodical procedure, and should defer judgment.

By its very nature the Honor School should be a pleasant experience for teacher and pupil. The atmosphere we wish to create is that of joy in work, respect for academic achievement, enthusiasm, and the ambition to prepare for the greatest service to the community. We should begin with the good qualities we find in the pupils, and build on them. We should utilize their alertness and responsiveness.

Working with bright pupils is a task that taxes the ingenuity and pedagogic resourcefulness of the teacher. No labor that we expend on a bright child is too much trouble. The bright child is worth all the work and effort we use to make him realize himself. It is a hard job—but it is a gratifying one, to watch the transformation from unexploited potential ability to its realization.

SARAH WOLFSON.

James Monroe High School.

HIGH POINTS

USE OF SPEECHES IN THE HISTORY CLASS

In the attempt to complete a crowded curriculum, to prepare for the Regents' Examinations, to "cover the field", too many history teachers have overlooked the drama, the color, the vividness, inherent in their subject. True, many of them have employed the familiar devices: dramatization—the Constitutional Convention, the Congress of Vienna, sessions of the United States Congress, and the rest; debates, studies of personalities, etc., but few of them have exploited to the full the dramatic possibilities with which the study of history is replete.

One device which has been overlooked is the speech. The speech is an excellent means of emphasizing the drama of some particular situation or event; of giving us an insight into the personality of some individual figure; of acquainting our students with source material; of offering pupils an opportunity for self-expression; and of correlating history with other subjects, particularly public speaking.

My procedure in utilizing this device is as follows: At the beginning of the term I ask particular students, usually from the Dramatic Society, to be responsible for portions of certain orations which will fit into our term's work, and

these students then set out to commit these speeches to memory.

Comes the day when the student's speech fits nicely into the lesson, and the teacher then proceeds to build up the background for the speech, emphasizing all the drama and tenseness in the situation. For instance, the story of Fisher Ames, apparently at the point of death, rising to plead for the Jay Treaty and the preservation of the Union suggests one of the possibilities here. After the teacher has created the proper atmosphere of suspense, the student gives his oration. In order to avoid the boresome sing-song rendition, the pupil is urged to employ some of the techniques of the spell-binder and the stump-speaker. Forcefulness, the use of modulation and inflection of the voice, gestures, and all the other tricks of the professional orator can be usefully employed provided, of course, that they harmonize with the content of the speech. For example, the perorations of Henry's "Liberty or Death" speech, and Webster's reply to Hayne can be extremely moving when done well. The value of a lesson to a class is always enhanced by a little "play-acting" and the technique I have mentioned is often very effective.

Besides lending "a bit of artistic verisimilitude" to what otherwise

might be a drab and colorless lesson, the speech is also an excellent means of conveying information. Interest is aroused not only in the drama, but also in the historical background of the oration, and facts consequently become a little clearer. A few examples will illustrate this point.

The speech of James Otis in 1761 against the Writs of Assistance explains some of the grievances of the colonists against England. Besides being a stirring address, Patrick Henry's "Liberty or Death" speech indicates the sentiment in the colonies for immediate independence. The Declaration of Independence also lends itself to this device. Fisher Ames' moving remarks have already been referred to. And where can we find a better statement of the principles of democracy than in Jefferson's first inaugural address? Probably the best known speech in our historical literature is Webster's reply to Hayne, which is at the same time, an excellent statement of constitutional interpretation. For material on slavery, the Lincoln-Douglas debates, or Seward's "Irrepressible Conflict" speech afford a wealth of usable material. Jefferson Davis' speech of 1861 wherein he bids farewell to the Senate is a good expression of secessionist opinion. For stirring prose, it would be difficult to surpass Lincoln's Gettysburg Address or his second inaugural speech.

Woodrow Wilson's speech of 1917 bringing us into the World War is a shining statement of American idealism in regard to that struggle.

I have mentioned merely a few speeches which can be easily adjusted to our present course of study. Any teacher can discover for himself other orations which will enliven and dramatize his lessons.

FRANK O'SULLIVAN.

John Adams High School.

THE SPANISH BULLETIN BOARD

At Walton High School, the Spanish Board has proved to be of inestimable value in conveying cultural information, correlating with other departments and activities, and developing initiative on the part of pupils who are gifted in special fields.

This term we have instituted the practice of presenting complete units for display, and of testing for the knowledge shown in visual form. The exhibits are well-planned, and are kept on the bulletin board for a period of two weeks. Since part of the Spanish course concerns the civilization of Spain and Spanish America, questions on weekly tests pertain to this material. At present, for example, we have for inspection the paintings of Velázquez. At the top of the exhibit is placed the following explanation:

VELÁZQUEZ (1599-1660)

was born in Seville. At the age of twenty-four, he was appointed court painter to Philip IV of Spain, and retained this position throughout his life. Velázquez ranks as the greatest Spanish painter, as well as one of the greatest masters of all time. His most notable achievement is his rendering of form existing in space. No other painter surpassed him in conveying the sense of silvery atmosphere on canvas, in which light and air fill the space around the figures and soften and diffuse the outlines. His palette consisted of cool misty greens, blues, subtle harmonies of neutral grays, and rich blacks. The paintings exhibited are:

Las Meninas, Los Borrachos, Las Hilanderas, El Rey Felipe IV, El Rey D. Felipe IV de Edad Avanzada, Villa Medici, El Infante D. Carlos, Un Truhán, Pablo de Valladolid, Menipo, Doña Mariana de Austria, Felipe III, La Reina Doña Margarita de Austria, Un Enano, El Dios Marte, and El Príncipe D. Baltasar Carlos.

The pupils must know the more famous of these paintings, and the meanings of the subjects which are printed underneath them in Spanish captions. Through their Spanish teachers, who are notified regularly when a new unit is pre-

sented, all students are informed of changes on the bulletin board.

Aside from the value that this device affords in teaching Spanish, other benefits accrue in a very informal way. In the case of the particular display described, the Chairman of the Art Department was invited to have his students see the exhibit of Velázquez's paintings. In a subsequent display, the students will see the flags of all the different Spanish-speaking republics. These flags were very attractively made by one of our girls. In our own subject, our more gifted pupils are encouraged to write compositions based on a concrete topic which they see on the bulletin board. These are presented to the editor of the Spanish newspaper for publication. When we display pictures of industries and products of the South and Central American countries, students of Economic Geography may see their subjects vitalized. In addition to all of these benefits, the pleasure of looking forward to new pictures creates keen interest on the part of the students. They enjoy seeing material which they have obtained through their own efforts. To get these visual aids, the pupils write to steamship lines, consulates, and Secretaries of the Interior. A Spanish stamp, and a letter in Spanish written on Spanish stationery make Spanish a very living subject to them. Similar work is being done here in French

and German, since the use of the bulletin board is an active feature in our department program.

It is evident, then, that the success of a well-planned bulletin board warrants its use in all subjects especially those in which an interplay of values may be presented to the students.

BENJAMIN SENDEROFF.
Walton High School.

LA SEMAINE A NEW YORK

To stimulate the enthusiasm and interest of students of French in French cultural activities to be found in New York City is, of course, an integral part of every department's program. At Evander Childs an interesting project has been undertaken this term, which shows every sign of becoming a permanent institution.

For many years catalogues, résumés, bulletin board notices, signs, newspaper clippings, pictures, and, of course, personal announcements have been used to further student interest in New York's French activities. The writer has long felt that this information should be distributed in printed form, in order not to distract from the classroom time. Therefore, this year, with the aid of the members of a Fourth Year French class, *La Semaine à New York* was prepared in mimeograph form and distributed to one class. This bulletin met with such immediate approval that it was made available to all

the French students of Evander Childs, more than 3,000 copies being issued each week.

The material for "*La Semaine à New York*" was originally organized from the information found in the theatre, radio, and book review sections of the *New York Times*. With the coöperation of many students interested in the project, important information and suggestions have been received from time to time. The material is now arranged over the week-end by the students themselves, each one being responsible for one particular section such as radio, concerts, théâtres, or cinéma.

Every class has a note-book, in which the individual student, using the bulletin as his guide, lists his outside French activities (whether it be reading, music, art or lectures). At each marking period the books are checked by the teacher and a student may receive as high as five points for this extra-curricular work. Students are also encouraged to write compositions and discuss on unprepared days the more interesting and important events of the week.

It is gratifying to observe the interest manifested by the first-term students in these various announcements, even to the extent of seeing French moving pictures and attending lectures at the Metropolitan.

A copy of a recent issue of *La Semaine à New York*, including

not only events conducted in French, but also those bearing in some way on French life and culture, may be secured from the writer by those who send a self-addressed stamped envelope in which to forward this material.

SOL PRED.

Evander Childs High School.

WHAT ACCURACY IN THE PHYSICS LABORATORY?

The physics laboratory should, essentially, illustrate the class discussion or give added information. Therefore, the problem of accuracy is connected with what is probably only a minor aim of the laboratory work, manipulative skill. However, if in the course of an experiment it is possible, without distracting attention from the real business at hand, to help the student develop an ability to handle apparatus, there is no reason why this should not be done. If we are to do this, standards of accuracy in numerical experiments must be set up and required of all students. What shall these standards be?

All physics teachers face this problem of determining the accuracy in individual experiments to be required of the students. What error in a numerical result shall be accepted? If the permissible error is too small, we are guilty of over-emphasizing a secondary outcome of the laboratory period; if too large, we are guilty of encouraging slipshod, inaccurate work.

This note describes an attempt to find the middle road, a valid criterion for accepting or rejecting a student's laboratory report.

Results were collected from 73 students for 9 numerical experiments done in Far Rockaway High School in the first term of physics. The table shows first, the average error; second, the 85 percentile (i.e., 85% of the students had this error or less. The reason for choosing this particular number is explained later); and third, the error obtained by the writer averaged for three trials of each experiment. All numbers represent percentages. In the density and specific gravity experiments, for which a standard value is known, this value was used as the base for calculating the percentage error. For the other cases, the base used was the average of the two numbers which theoretically should be equal to each other, e.g., resultant and equilibrant.

PERCENT OF ERROR IN 9 LABORATORY EXPERIMENTS

Experiment	Average	85 Per- centile	Writer's
1. Density	5.3	11.0	1.0
2. Archimedes Principle	1.2	2.0	0.1
3. Law of Flotation	0.8	1.2	0.2
4. Specific Gravity of Solids	3.1	7.1	0.0
5. Specific Gravity of Fluids	2.7	8.3	1.0
6. Parallelogram of Forces	1.5	4.5	0.8

Experiment	Average	85 Per- centile	Writer's
7. Principle of Moments	1.3	2.0	0.4
8. Center of Gravity	1.5	3.4	0.0
9. Inclined Plane	1.6	2.7	0.6

It is surely inadvisable to draw conclusions from this table for any school other than the one at which the results were obtained; the percentages will surely be different elsewhere.

The table offers the possibility of securing information concerning the methods, apparatus and student's abilities involved in the various experiments. For example, why should the measurement of density result in such a large error? It may be that the apparatus is worn or originally inaccurate, or that the method (in this case, the displacement of water in a graduated cylinder by a known lead weight) is a poor one and should be modified.

However, the determination of a criterion of accuracy was the original motive of this study. The writer intends in the future to reject any report of a laboratory experiment unless the percent error is less than, or at the most, equal to that in the 85 percentile column. This particular number was chosen because it is the average percentage of students passing in physics at this school during a three-year

period. If we compel students who do not obtain results equal to those obtained by 85% of the class to repeat a whole term or year of work, we are justified in demanding the repetition of a day's work.

ABRAM BADER.

Far Rockaway High School.

A PRACTICAL PROBLEM—HOW TO REDUCE TRAFFIC IN A CROWDED SCHOOL

Yes, I dare propose it! Break up the traditional arrangement where one special department is located in a definite part of the school. Scatter the classes of the various departments throughout the school. Result—a greatly reduced traffic problem, less dashing about by students, fewer puffing students arriving late to class and, the only disadvantage, the fact that the chairman of the department may have to go from floor to floor to visit his classes.

Think of it! Because tradition says that a chairman must have his teachers in rooms near his office, in a three or four minute interval we compel thousands of students to race from one part of the building to another, on inadequate stairways and through badly crowded hallways, finally to arrive in their subject classes unfit for immediate work. Even so, the present arrangement of supposedly solid departments in one part of the building is not actually existent

because program difficulties make it impossible to place more than a majority of teachers in rooms near the chairman's office.

I speak feelingly about this subject because it has been near to my heart for a long time. I realize the difficulties inherent in any suggestions which tend to break up departments, but they are difficulties which can be overcome with proper adjustment within the departments. The chief objection is always that supplies needed by the teacher would not be available. However, a survey will show that only in certain departments will such difficulties arise. I think it is wise to point out at once that any suggested plan would never function with one hundred per cent effectiveness. In other words, if we establish the "Break-Up of Department Plan" and obtain a 50 to 70 per cent improvement, I think there are few who would object to its permanent installation.

It would be useless for me to describe at great length the extensive investigations which were made in connection with the "Break-up of Department Plan." Most of the prefatory materials are obvious, and long recitals of figures would serve only to bore and confuse, rather than to interest and convert you to my plan; however, a brief description will help the reader.

Original Observation: Some time ago I gave my attention to

the serious traffic problems arising from the overcrowding of the Evander Childs High School. I was instrumental in suggesting and installing a one-way traffic plan on stairways and in the halls. I have always felt that the number of students rushing through overcrowded buildings is so great that dangerous traffic conditions may exist in our large high schools. In searching for solutions to this problem, I discovered that several problems existed: one was the fact that students jostled one another in the halls while on their way to classes; another was that students were delayed for long intervals in reaching classes; another was that serious traffic jams were present at and on all stairways. I realized that if we could solve some of these problems we would relieve the traffic situation considerably. My observation resulted in the formation of the one-way traffic plan previously mentioned. This traffic plan did relieve the jostling and did bring about some relief of congestion at the stairwells; but it could never bring complete relief in a building originally equipped for 4,000 students with a present school population of over 8,000 students in two end-to-end and two overlapping sessions. Therefore I sought and obtained information which led me to the "Break-up of Department Plan."

With the assistance of a large group of students who were spe-

cially trained for the job, I tabulated the programs of some 8,000 students, showing period by period the movement of each class of students from a particular part of the building to other parts of the building. When the tabulation was completed, I was not astonished to find that what I had thought to be true was actually so. Most of the students travel from floor to floor, in many cases from the first floor to the fourth floor, during every change of period interval. Think of it—an entire group of 8,000 boys and girls released from a class of about 40 minutes, travel to more than 90 rooms throughout the building, and many of these through crowded halls and crowded stairways. What a tremendous waste of time and what a tremendous waste of energy!

We tabulated the same information for the Theodore Roosevelt Evening High School and the results were practically the same. The movement throughout the building at the end of each period was enormous, and the traffic problems resulting were in many cases open to severe criticism.

We next tabulated the various combinations of subjects which the students were taking—for example, Economics with English 8, and so on, down the line. We confirmed a point which we already knew, that is, that certain subjects, such as English 8 and Economics, were taken at the same time by large

numbers of students.

Again I do not wish to disturb the reader with enormous lists of figures, but they are available in the form of charts for those who wish to see just what was done.

When we discovered that such large numbers had similar combinations of classes, the solution to the traffic problem was evident. We knew then that the one thing to do was to program students so that, wherever possible, a student taking Economics could take his English in the same corridor or on the same floor, together with his mathematics, his history, a language, and other subjects. We realized at once, of course, that we could not get perfection, because a student with three of his classes on the first floor might have to go up to the third floor for science or drawing, or the fourth floor for lunch. A definite pattern was evident which showed that with just a little extra effort on the part of the program committee, it was quite possible to arrange a program where at least 50 per cent of the movements throughout the school could be eliminated entirely by a simple rearrangement of department classes—that is, by placing several grades of English on each floor, economics on each floor and so on wherever possible through the program. Considering the first and second terms alone, the possibility of assignment of these classes to one

section of the building for a great part of the day is so perfectly obvious that it is unnecessary even to comment further about it.

The plan was presented to a chairman's meeting at the Evander Childs High School. A committee was appointed to study the plan. At a later date, another discussion resulted in the plan being tabled for further consideration.

We put this plan into effect in the Roosevelt Evening High School. It has now been in operation some two and one-half years. During that time each term has shown that the programming permits some 70 per cent or more of the students to remain either on one floor or in one wing of the building on two floors. The teacher in charge of traffic at the Roosevelt Evening High School immediately reported that the traffic of the school was immeasurably relieved. The teachers reported that the students were arriving in classes much more promptly. The crowds in the halls disappeared within a short time after the change bell had rung. If there was a crowd it was mainly in the halls, but the stairwells were relieved of their tremendous burden.

I recommend that further study be given to this plan in large schools so that the boys and girls may be relieved of the tremendous pressure of getting to a class on time and of running themselves ragged over long distances to ac-

complish this usually unheard of feat. Let us try to conserve the energy of our students *for the classroom* and not expend it on the effort *to arrive in the classroom*.

B. ROBERT SILVER,
Evander Childs High School.

THE COMMERCIAL MUSEUM AS A VALUABLE ASSET

A Commercial Museum, a bright, cheerful room on the North side of a building near the Hudson River, combines for the Haaren High School a Geography reference room, a study room for others when there is space, a room equipped with heavy fireproof curtains and a large screen for visual instruction, a storehouse to be explored by entering Geography students in classes, and a club room for students inclined to wander from the beaten path in travel.

Intricate, interrelated geographical values are to be found in the museum-library combination. There are no less than nine ways in which that relationship shows. There is a Project Index containing all topics especially assigned at any time during the term, with correlation of all materials available, including much in the school library as well. Books, magazines, clippings, and pamphlets are listed on small index cards kept at the desk. The magazines are especially selected for the purpose, from current discussion of topics as they

occur. This necessitates watching contemporaneous writing. For instance, the articles on drought and related topics were chosen from newspapers and periodicals during the summer drought seasons in the United States.

An especially valuable piece of furniture in the Museum is our cabinet for samples of raw materials. It consists of a case of 56 drawers in which the essential elements for the discussion of any industry are assembled. The individual drawers may be sent to classrooms upon request. For instance, all the direct products and by-products of petroleum may be found in samples or bottles in the Petroleum drawer. Thus it is only a matter of a few seconds to hand out materials for a forty-minute period.

The heart of the Museum is a group of six wall show-cases, recently supplemented by a seventh floor-case, in which it is possible to group articles visible from all sides. The component parts of an industry, such as the Automobile Industry, with glass, rubber, cotton, copper, iron and steel, chromium, aluminum, fibers, soy beans, paint materials, nickel, and hardwoods, are temporarily displayed in this case. On the side walls, the cases contain permanent collections of minerals, agricultural products, transportation models, fibers, and a selected group, such as Commodities of Overproduction.

One case is devoted to models made by students, and the long essay in bright colors, which must be prepared as a part of the term's work in some of the classes. Three globes, one physical, one political, and one of the blackboard variety, enhance the value of the Museum and supplement the wall maps and the smaller mounted maps. In the seven filing cases, we have pamphlets for classroom use, such as "Power on the Farm," "California Fruit-Growers' Coöperatives," "Achieving a Balanced Agriculture," "Mining and Preparation of Anthracite," "Interdependence," "Motion Picture Study Programs (the industry)" "Most Modern Coal Pier in Existence," "Coffee,"—92 sets in all. Mounted maps, in sets also, on varied topics, from raised relief maps to trade routes, and the proposed forest shelter belt of the United States, fill one case. Single pamphlets, covering every topic studied fill two more cases, and two files of mounted pictures complete the equipment, which, is however, always growing.

To present, in graphic form, the processes of manufacture, the Museum collection includes valuable charts, such as rubber in the raw state advanced into the making of a tire or erasers; all the raw materials and processes in the making of a thermometer; flax from the plant to fine cloth. Most of these charts have mounted samples of the actual raw materials.

By constant surveillance of newspapers and current magazines for current events, we have been able to correlate, to a large degree, and to motivate many lessons. During the Plebiscite voting in the Saar Valley, for instance, it was possible to emphasize in much detail the great value and importance of an adequate supply of fuel for power and industry. Many topics cannot be adequately discussed in class without the background of news articles.

Equipment in large roller maps displayed for use in equipped classrooms is supplemented by a constantly growing collection of individual mounted maps on countries, continents, cities, and current economic topics. The latter provide material, by display under glass in the Museum, for teachers' motivation and for the use of all students. Examples: "Proposed Inland Waterways for the United States," "Soviet Russia's Five-Year Plans," "South America's Airways Systems," "Transatlantic Cable Routes," "Path of the Drought of 1934 in the United States," "Materials of the Automobile Industry Supplied by Individual States."

The card catalogue must, of necessity, be very minutely prepared for certain short summaries of topics. For example, one reference on the Monsoon, which may be covered in a page and a half, is of more value than two full chapters in another book. The

division of topics is constantly changing, and there can be no set rule. Some phases of agriculture, for instance, are prominent one term in the plan of a teacher, and far less important four terms later. This occurs in many subjects, to be sure, but is felt definitely in this study of Geography. Under the new syllabus we must take into account rotation of crops, cotton overproduction and the Bankhead Act, crop control, submarginal lands or resettlement farming at the present time, while under the older syllabus, much more demand was put upon us to supply information on agricultural methods applied to specific countries.

A file which encloses clippings in letter-size envelopes ready to be used in the Museum or at home, is arranged alphabetically by topics, and this makes it easy for the student staff to find materials as requested. When new clippings are chosen from magazines or newspapers the number of the clippings in the envelope, which is indicated in pencil, is changed to correspond. Thus the file may be expanded at will, both in number and topic. It is constantly valuable.

History classes, English classes, Art Weaving classes, as well as the Geography groups benefit from the Museum and from the numerous lists and compilations that have been prepared by the librarian. Magazine material is drawn

chiefly from the following sources: *Living Age*, *Fortune*, *World's Work*, *Review of Reviews*, *National Geographic*, *News-Week*, *Readers' Digest*, *Scientific American*, *Colliers*, *Survey Graphic*, *Saturday Evening Post*. Popularly written articles make the strongest appeal. The whole collection of books in the Museum-Library has been analyzed for maps, so that one may procure at a moment's notice, from that index, a map filling the requirements of any teacher's assignment. Each term certain pupils in History prepare maps of the world and of the United States, showing mineral, agricultural, and other resources. This work is done in the Museum. This index has proven of great value over and over again, and has not taken active time from the Museum, as most of the entries have been made by the librarian when she has been forced to leave the room while movies are being shown.

Groups of correlated materials have been prepared which show at a glance all there is the Museum on any given subject relating to any given part of the world. Special subjects are given to students once a term, with either an essay or a model to be prepared. The best of these are put on display in the Museum, and are retained for several terms. This gives good students a special interest in the Museum. A special

index of all available material in the Museum of the School Library on these topics has been prepared, and a longer time is allowed for the use of this material in circulation, as the regular work must go on as usual.

The development of statistical trends in this work have been most interesting to watch. Generally speaking, under the old syllabus, book circulation was heavier. Now we find ways to use far more constantly our pamphlets, our picture files, our map sets for classroom use, and clipping file. The figures will vary from term to term, depending upon the method of approach of the teachers. It is scarcely possible to compare our circulation with that of any other Museum in the schools, as we do so much of our work right here during the eight periods of the school day. Supplementary texts are used with great frequency in all of the classes in Geography.

The book equipment consists of up-to-date reference books, such as Paullin's "Atlas of the historical Geography of the United States," "New Wonder Book of Knowledge," Zimmermann's "World Resources and Industries," Huntington and Carlson's "Geographic Basis of Society" and the current copies of the *World Almanac* and *Stateman's Yearbook*. Many old books, useful for facts rather than for presentation, are in our collection: Bishop and Keller's "In-

dustry and Trade," Brigham's "Commercial Geography," Smith's "Commerce and Industry," and Toothaker's "Commercial Raw Materials." There are supplementary texts such as Colby and Foster's "Economic Geography for Secondary Schools," Packard and Sinnott's "Nations as Neighbors," Rugg's "Changing Civilizations in the Modern World," Rugg's "Intro-

duction to American Civilization," Staples and York's "Economic Geography," and Stull and Hatch's "Our World Today." Many of the maps in the older books are of special value, and are often mounted in sets when the old books are discarded.

Figures showing the use of the books over a three-year period:

<i>Terms ending</i>	<i>Home circulation</i>	<i>Classes of books used most on average</i>
Jan. '34	3,415	
June '34	3,982	1st-300 (Sociology)
Jan. '35	2,100*	2nd-910 (Travel)
June '35	1,694	Other classes represented in our
Jan. '36	1,841	work are
June '36	2,651*	500 (Science)
*Subject changed to Elective		600 (General works, mostly periodicals)

The term with the highest circulation, Feb.-June, 1934, had five teachers of Geography and eighteen classes. The highest single month's circulation, March 1934, was 1,181 books and the term's was 3,982. Add to this, the reference use in the room, and you will find that one librarian find herself rather fully occupied.

Book circulation (by years)

1933-4	8,209	
1934-5	3,347*	*During that year 8 classes were
1935-6	3,606	dropped.

Figures showing the use of specialized materials, such as pamphlets, maps, etc.

<i>Terms ending</i>	<i>Jan. '34</i>	<i>Je. '34</i>	<i>Jan. '35</i>	<i>Je. '35</i>	<i>Jan. '36</i>	<i>Je. '36</i>
Pamphlets	1,691	715	1,001	811	1,779	2,279
Clippings	193	115	555	574	653	293
Pictures	2,130	1,619	2,983	1,292	1,919	1,426
Maps	1,349	3,211	1,661	2,534	2,115	766
Products or exhibits	131	141	171	119	223	293

Thus there is a range of from 715 pamphlets in one term to 2,279 in another, depending, as was said before, upon the individual teacher's approach to the subject. The use of the raw materials, either in the product-drawers or in larger exhibits, remains rather stationary. There are always class discussions based upon the materials.

The constant use of the Museum is for reference work in Geography. The register has ranged from 1,200 students in the days when the course was compulsory for a Commercial diploma, to about 500 now that the work is elective. But now, with fewer students, there is more intensive work done, and other students are allowed to use the room to capacity each period. Since it is not possible for them to write easily in the Auditorium which is usually used for study, we have many pupils in the Museum. Since the School Library seats only 70, our 40 seats are often at a premium.

Summary of the use of the room:

<i>Term ending</i>	<i>Reference</i>	<i>Attendance</i>
Jan. '34	3,648	5,505
June '34	4,561	6,114
Jan. '35	2,312*	3,718*
June '35	1,035	2,388
Jan. '36	1,313	2,848
June '36	2,293	4,412
*Subject changed to elective.		

In the Main building, we had five teachers and 18 classes in 1933-34; four teachers and fourteen classes in 1934-35; and then only three teachers, with an average of twelve classes since that time.

The lighter program enabled us to start classes of instruction in the use of the Museum. We conduct it like a Treasure Hunt, and the pupils all like it very much. It serves to introduce them to the room which they may use in study periods all the time they are studying Geography and often for the remainder of the time they are in school by preference.

Not only as a reference room does the Museum function, however. Two types of visual instruction are given, and it becomes necessary for the Librarian to transport the pupils and all needed reference materials to any other part of the building. The Department owns a projector, and mounted pictures and slides are often shown, especially to Geography classes. Then the room has been equipped with heavy fire-proof curtains, and a large screen, and motion pictures are frequently given to classes in any subject, as there is only one other room available in Haaren for this work.

One of the teachers of Geography has prepared sets of pictures which are presented each term to familiarize pupils with phraseology which is so different from their

experience. For instance, Labor in Agriculture, Development of Transportation, Underproduction and Drought, and Introductory Geography are so presented.

In spite of the fact that the study group in the Museum may have to vacate at a moment's notice, the training of the student staff stresses four values: library work, typing, responsibility in keeping and making records, and a grasp of the work of the Museum as a whole. During their first term of work, students are checked up by a simple test on what they need to know, and are marked on the result for permanent record in the Museum. For subsequent terms, more difficult tests have been prepared, and are given at times when the work is slack. It is often a surprise to find that a student whom one thought to be slow in comprehension comes out on top in these check-ups. From what the librarian has been able to discover, the quality of the work done in typing and keeping records often exceeds the quality of work in the typing and business training classes. A real letter's going out, with excellence taken as a matter of course, seems to offer a challenge worth while.

Return to service in the Museum is constant. Several students have

given continuous service from four to six consecutive terms, have proved themselves practically indispensable, and have made our adjustments more possible under the moving program we must pursue. Period records must be kept of all pamphlets, clippings, maps, pictures, exhibits, and book-sets used in classrooms, as well as of the circulation of materials overnight. This entails a great amount of work, and the responsibility frequently lies in the staff. Sometimes we are obliged to find materials in the dark, during movies, and to give them to waiting messengers.

The greatest obstacles to efficient work in the Library-Museum are the interruption of the work for visual instruction and the very limited space in which to store materials. The very restrictions sometimes, however, are conducive to more concentrated work, for the time is shorter, and since many of the students do not wish to take books home, they work with more concentration.

With the Museum-Library, the study of Geography can be complete and real to the student; without such equipment both pupils and teachers find many handicaps.

RUTH MALMAR,

Librarian, Commercial Museum.
Haaren High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

ECHOES OF THE MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

The use of modern machines in making today's teaching more effective was a recurring topic at the twenty-seventh annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, held in Buffalo, November 25-27, 1937. "We will not entrust our lives to dentists, hospitals, and physicians who do not keep pace with modern science," Holland D. Roberts of Stanford University and Menlo School and Junior College said in his presidential address. "Should not teachers command the respect of pupils and public by using the latest efficient means of carrying on their work?"

Professor Roberts described a conversation conducted over short-wave radio between Menlo School and the Aberdeen (Washington) High School with the use of a portable transmitter costing \$125. He prophesied that at the present rate of progress, students would soon be able to communicate with pupils in other classrooms and with children on other continents as well.

The creation of innumerable speech situations for the classroom with modern electrical equipment was discussed by Harlen M. Adams of Menlo School and Junior College, who was made chairman

of a Council committee on Mechanical Devices in the Classroom. He demonstrated classroom uses of a recording machine, a public address system, inter-room communication equipment, and a dictating machine. How the phonograph can enrich teaching was the subject of a demonstration by George W. Hibbitt of Columbia University, who played records of Negro song and speech he had collected in a Southern coastal town and records made recently by Robert P. Tristram Coffin of his own poems for the Council's collection of poets' recordings.

Dr. Stella S. Center, director of New York University Reading Clinic, described the machines that are being used in diagnosing and remedying reading difficulties. She forecast the establishment of reading clinics in school systems and individual schools in the near future. "A program of instruction in silent reading skills on all school levels from elementary school through junior college is needed," she said. "Sufficient skill cannot be acquired in elementary school. I recommend a campaign to convince boards of education, taxpayers, and ourselves that the business of the school is to teach people to read, as Carlyle said, and that we need equipment and trained teachers if we are to develop a literate electorate."

Dr. Paul Witty of Northwestern University also lamented the low estate of reading among children and adults, but he declared that the road to improvement was stimulation of pupils to do accurate social thinking, for reading would then have more meaning for them. "If we accept the concept of education as an agency for social understanding, participation, and reconstruction," he said, "no longer are we concerned primarily with mechanical proficiency and literacy; our aim is to develop socially competent young people. Remedial reading will seek change in the child's adjustment and orientation to his in-and-out of school environments."

High intelligence and a lively sense of humor generally go together, said Miss Winifred H. Nash of the Roxbury Memorial High School, Boston. Her talk was based on a series of experiments given to test high school students' power to appreciate humor of various types.

"Educating the student's sense of humor is a social responsibility often ignored in the English curriculum," declared Miss Nash. "Much time is spent in teaching punctuation, grammar, and sentence structure, but little time in helping pupils to appreciate humor. Yet the cultivation of a student's sense of humor contributes far more to his social education than do rules for the use

of the comma. A misplaced comma seldom leads to serious consequences, but a misplaced laugh may be a social catastrophe."

The experiments showed, Miss Nash said, that a pupil's appreciation generally accorded fairly well with his IQ; that the majority of pupils did not appreciate humor of language as in puns and humorous phrasing; that few pupils recognized satire or enjoyed whimsicality; and that dialect was generally a hindrance to a pupil's enjoyment.

"The tests seemed to prove that insofar as a pupil fails to understand humor, he fails also to understand life situations and to interpret character. Hence, helping a pupil to understand humor is of vital significance socially. How can humor be taught? Not, of course, by any rigidly formalized series of lessons. Bits of satire read aloud and explained, a letter of Lamb's chuckled over, a nonsense rhyme or a joke posted now and then on the bulletin board—methods like these may add a cubit or so to the pupil's sense of humor.

"To deepen a pupil's understanding, to enlarge his vision, to extend his tolerance, to teach him to laugh at himself and his own shortcomings,—these are worthy social objectives that may be achieved, in a measure at least, by educating his sense of humor."

The suggestion that grammar

rules be liberalized was made by Dr. Janet Rankin Aiken, grammarian, of Columbia University.

"Dickens made approximately one error in usage to every thirty words," said Dr. Aiken, basing her statement on a study of 15,000 words from Dickens' pen in their original form. "His most common error was the capitalization of common nouns, in which he agrees well with 1400 Indiana and Ohio teachers whose letters and supervisory notes were checked for errors. They slipped most often in capitalizing common nouns."

Tests have shown, Dr. Aiken said, that few school children even in the upper high school grades observe anything wrong in a dangling participle and only one out of four in the twelfth grade knows enough to use *its* and *is* with collective nouns like *team* and *committee*.

"Suppose," Dr. Aiken concluded, "we start with the daring hypothesis that the English language belongs to the people who use it, even school children. If it is their language, the way they use it is the right way. Then the important thing becomes finding out how they use it. On this point most of the usage tests are silent, for they lump big and little errors together. They set about turning every pupil into a competent proofreader, although the demand for proofreaders is far more limited than that for writ-

ers of good English.

"Perhaps grammar rules should be modified to conform more nearly to the usage of Dickens and the high schools. Many of the present rules can stand. Neither Dickens nor American school children use double negatives nor say *had wrote*, *hadn't ought*, *leave go*, *lay down*, and so on, in sufficient number as to suggest that such constructions should be admitted to good English. Sentences like, 'She saw John and I' are contrary to the genius of the language. Such locution as these may be made essentials in teaching, with the aim of levelling all usages up to the Dickens or average level. But we need more tests of both adults and children to determine what in fact is this English language which we teach."

That grammar is dead, Dr. J. C. Tressler of the Richmond Hill High School, New York City, vigorously denied. "It is true," Dr. Tressler explained, "that Grammar was critically ill a few years ago, and many English teachers hoped she wouldn't recover. In fact, she underwent a serious operation, in which the surgeons removed much of her Latin terminology, most of her classifications, all her parsing, and a good deal of her analysis and diagramming. She made, however, an extraordinary recovery. She has now become one of the healthy and vigorous members of the fam-

ily of the high school curriculum, sturdier than some of her older brothers and sisters."

The theme of Dr. Tressler's talk was that a sensible teaching of grammar as advocated in *An Experience Curriculum in English*, the recommendations of the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English, will help pupils to learn to read, speak, and write.

The thing that brought grammar into disrepute, Dr. Tressler said, was that educators, believing in the old faculty psychology, taught grammar chiefly as a mental discipline. "The mind was considered a field which required thorough plowing and harrowing and then would produce an abundant mental crop of the kind desired. Since Herbart's wrecking of the faculty or compartment explanation of the mind, the thorough-going mental-discipline theory has been on the educational scrap heap. The burden of proof rests heavily on those who teach grammar or any other subject exclusively or chiefly as a discipline. There are two objectives set down in the *Experience Curriculum* in the study of grammar: first, to write and speak correct sentences; two, to build efficient sentences. This is functional or instrumental grammar — grammar taught not only for use but in use.

"Today, by being taught in application and not as a mental

discipline, Grammar has regained her vigor and attractiveness. Mr. Alfred M. Hitchcock did not exaggerate when he remarked a while ago, 'Grammar is coming back with a bang.' If she retains her interest in application and limits sharply her classifying, analyzing, and theorizing, she has, I predict, many happy years ahead."

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The Modern Foreign Language Section of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, meeting Tuesday afternoon, March 1, at the Chalfonte-Haddon Hall in Atlantic City, during the annual convention of the American Association of School Administrators, will be sponsored this year by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers and affiliated modern language associations jointly with the National Council for the Social Studies. It has been necessary to change the title of the section this year since the teachers of the ancient languages have established a separate section. It is also pointed out that this joint session sponsored this year by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers and the National Council for the Social Studies is entirely separate from the all-day Saturday meeting regularly organized and conducted by the National Council for the

Social Studies.

A directing committee has been named on which the joint sponsors are represented by two members each, and of which the chairman is the appointee of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, which originated the section. The members of the committee are:

C. C. Barnes, President, National Council for the Social Studies, Head of Social Studies Department, Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University.

R. O. Hughes, Assistant Director of Curriculum Research, Pittsburgh Public Schools.

B. Q. Morgan, Professor of German, Stanford University, California.

Roy E. Mosher, Supervisor of Modern Languages, State Education Department, Albany, New York.

Stephen L. Pitcher, *Chairman*, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, St. Louis Public Schools.

The central theme of the session will be "Educational Objectives Common to the Foreign Languages and the Social Studies." During the first hour papers will be read to present the point of view of each area and to furnish some practical suggestions for the discussion which will follow. Dr.

Howard E. Wilson of the Harvard Graduate School of Education will represent the Social Studies and Dr. James B. Tharp of the Ohio State University will speak for the Foreign Languages.

The second hour will be given over to a panel discussion under the direction of a high school principal with three high school teachers from each of the above-mentioned areas as members. Two of these teachers will be S. P. McCutcheon, formerly a teacher of social studies at John Burroughs School, St. Louis, and Paul B. Diedrich, formerly a teacher of foreign languages at University School, The Ohio State University, both now members of the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Experiment in Curriculum Revision of the Commission on Relation of Secondary School and College. The other members of the panel are yet to be chosen. A report of the session will be sent to the principal foreign language, social studies, and other educational periodicals.

JAMES B. THARP,
Associate Professor of the Teaching of Foreign Languages,
The Ohio State University,
Columbus, Ohio.

COURSES AT THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART

For the second term of the current school year The Metropolitan Museum of Art offers three courses for teachers in the public

schools, which have been approved by the Board of Superintendents as fulfilling the study requirements for salary increments. For the convenience of teachers the courses have been scheduled for Friday afternoons and Saturday mornings, each to be completed in fifteen two-hour sessions.

Elements of Color will be studied in the course to be conducted by Miss Cornell on Friday afternoons at four o'clock. Attention will be given to paintings, Eastern art, and ceramics, textiles, and other aspects of the decorative arts.

Greek Art and Civilization, to be offered by Mr. Shaw on Saturday mornings at eleven, will emphasize the social background of Greek art from Pre-Hellenic Crete to the Roman inheritance of Pompeii.

In American History and Art by Mrs. Fansler and Mr. Busselle, also meeting on Saturday mornings at eleven, a study will be made of the history of the arts in the United States from colonial beginnings to the present day, and of the methods by which objects in the Museum can be used in the teaching of American history.

All three courses are free to teachers in the public schools. A program of all the courses offered by the Museum will be sent free to anyone requesting it.

As in the first term, talks for pupils in the public schools,

planned to assist in the study of history, languages, and literature, will be given by members of the Museum's educational staff. A list of suggested topics will be found in the Lecture Program. Teachers are urged to ask for other subjects connected with the work of their classes. Requests for appointments for the talks should be made as far in advance as possible. Appointment slips and lists of subjects will be supplied to teachers on request.

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF PEACE

We've all had occasion at some time or other to examine the basis of some socially desirable abstraction that we have been trying to teach. Perhaps it was the problem of school loyalty, or civic pride, or community health. Sometimes the end has been so universally acceptable, so simple in its purpose that this analysis has not been brought into play. Take peace education, for example. You and I want to educate for peace. Our students know that we want to educate for peace. Yet their very "knowingness" seems, somehow, to make our lectures, and demonstrations, and projects completely routine performance. An art class completes a project in peace posters. Their work is applauded by the school. What is being applauded—the poster, the peace idea, or the implications that both convey?

A group of students worked with me a few months ago in arranging a peace program for our school assembly. We gave a good performance. We knew it was good. You could sense it in the auditorium during and after the performance. Naturally, the actors were proud. They thought that their idea was a good one, that others ought to know about it, that it ought to be written up. We tried to recall what had happened.

We remembered how we had sat and looked at each other somewhat blankly. Five students and one teacher, we had accepted with great interest the task of arranging a peace program for our school assembly. And we knew what we wanted in a vague sort of way—something that would make peace seem real and reasonable, something that would send the students out of the auditorium talking about what they had just seen. "Let's keep speeches out of it," was the first contribution from one of the girls as we had started our meeting. "They'll sit there and listen, but after its over they won't remember a thing." The chairman suggested doubtfully that there might have been some other plays which we hadn't looked at, but his partner in the search denied that wearily. "They're all alike," he said. "Either they're pageants written for kids, or they're sermons writ-

ten in dialogue. There isn't a single one act play that would really suit us." Another girl murmured that we could always fall back on the school chorus to sing peace songs, but her voice trailed off with her own indecision. The librarian came in with more books under her arm—some published speeches, a few war novels, another book on assembly programs. "There's a book called Company K by William March. It's a little different from the usual run. Maybe you could do something with it." It took us a few minutes to make out the nature of the book. It was a series of short dramatic biographies, or snatches of biography from the lives of the different men in Company K. It was when we had read through three or four of these sketches, getting more and more interested that the idea dawned. Someone said, "Why, we could dramatize some of these, I bet, if we could keep them from getting too elaborate." But the greatest inspiration of all came when one of the boys who had seen the Federal Theatre's production of the Living Newspaper suggested montage. The idea would be to give a series of flashes into the lives of these men who made up Company K. If we could have eight or ten little groups of student actors, each of which could present one such flash, the cumulative result would

be just the thing we were looking for. "It means that we'll have to write the dialogue." "Yes, but we won't have to worry about scenery or settings. Just a spotlight beating down on one part of the stage." "Let's try it with one chapter." This is how one chapter worked out. In the book itself, it read as follows:

PRIVATE ARTHUR CRENSHAW

When I came home, the people in my town declared Crenshaw Day. They decorated the stores and streets with bunting and flags; there was a parade in the morning with speeches afterwards, and a barbecue at Oak Grove in the afternoon. Ralph R. Hawley, president of the First National Bank and Trust Company, acted as toastmaster. He recited my war record and everybody cheered. Then he pointed to my twisted back and to my scarred face and his voice broke with emotion. I sat there amused and uncomfortable. I wasn't fooled in the slightest. There is an expressive phrase which soldiers use on such occasions and I repeated it under my breath. At last the ceremonies were over and Mayor Couzens himself drove me in his new automobile to my father's farm beyond the town. The place had gone to ruins in my absence. I began to wonder what I could do for

a living now that heavy farm work was impossible for me any longer. All that afternoon I thought and at last I hit on the idea of starting a chicken farm. I got pencil and paper and figured the thing out. I decided that I could start in a small way if I had five hundred dollars with which to buy the necessary stock and equipment. That night as I lay awake and wondered how I could raise the money, I thought of Mr. Hawley's speech in which he had declared that the town owed me a debt of gratitude for the things I had done which it could never hope to repay. So the next morning I called on him at his bank, and told him of my plans, and asked him to lend me the money. He was very courteous and pleasant about it, but if you think he lent me the \$500 you are as big a fool as I was.

This is how it was rewritten for student production. The directions called for three characters, mother, daughter, and son arranged in a small semi-circle, the first two seated, the son standing facing them. The mother knits, the daughter is eating an apple. The spotlight flashes on the group:

Mother: Why son, you look tired and worried. Is there anything wrong?

Daughter: I should think you'd feel perfectly wonderful after

that reception you got yesterday. Why, even Mr. Hawley, the President of the First National Bank was there, and that speech he made—wasn't it too thrilling?

Mother: And his voice broke when he mentioned your twisted back. He couldn't go on.

Son: Yes, sympathetic Mr. Hawley. So kind, so gentle.

Mother: And Mayor Couzens drove you out to the farm here himself. To think that this could ever happen.

Son (bitterly): Kind Mr. Hawley.

Mother: (not understanding): Just realize, son, that Mr. Hawley said the town could never repay you for the things you had done.

Son (enraged): Stop it, mother! Mr. Hawley isn't kind or even sympathetic. He gloried in the speech he made because he was the center of attraction. He didn't mean a word he said.

Mother (reprovingly): Now, son!

Son: Yes, it was all a lie. What were we fighting for? We were fighting for people like Mr. Hawley. He can never repay me. Why this morning I asked for a loan to start a chicken farm with and he said very gently, and kindly,

'I'm sorry, boy, but things have been going badly with us too.' (*breaks down, weeping.*) Kind Mr. Hawley! (Blackout)

Once the idea had taken hold the thing moved forward at a rapid pace. Nine scenes were worked up. These included the one above on Private Arthur Crenshaw; Corporal Lloyd Somerville, a gas patient in an army hospital; Private Joseph Delaney, trying to settle down to gardening and back porch gossip; Sergeant Wilbur Tietjen, a sharpshooter whose decorations sometimes puzzle him; Private Samuel Updike, whose high spirits are suddenly dampened by the misery of a French village; Private Sylvester Wendell, company clerk, who loathes the job of writing letters of condolence to the relatives of the dead men because the facts are so blatantly distorted; Private Carol Hart, who makes the unfortunate discovery of a small girl's picture inside the coat of a dead enemy soldier; Lieutenant Thomas Jewett, whose zeal leads his whole command into an ambush from which he alone escapes; and Private Carter Atlas, half mad from dreaming about food other than soggy potatoes and beans.

When the dramatizations were finished, however, we realized that each was very short. In fact, some were so short that they might very well be over before the

audience could get into them. It was decided to have a commentator who would speak from the wings so that he would not be seen himself, but whose voice would serve to introduce each scene. Each introduction was to consist of the reading of the first few lines of the sketch just as they appeared in the original book. Thus, in the example given above, the commentator started with the words: "When I came home..." and concluded with, "a barbecue at Oak Grove in the afternoon."

Nobody as yet, had looked into the problem of spotlights, or thought about staging the production. Two lantern slide machines borrowed from the science laboratory proved the perfect solution. They were set up on either side of the auditorium and focused on opposite sides of the stage. That gave us the ideal means of keeping up the tempo. As one scene was finished the light would be switched off, and the other light would go on. The actors in each succeeding scene took their places in the dark, and were all ready when the spotlight went up.

On the day of the production, that darkened auditorium grew quieter by degrees until the little sigh at the end of each scene lifted and moved. When the lights finally went up at the end, we were paid our greatest tribute of all, because for a minute nobody stirred.

That was the way we solved our problem. There was a deep sense of satisfaction when we look back at our work. The program brought to life a number of sound social implications presented so simply that no student could fail to bridge the gap between the stage and himself. You could narrow down the entire concept of "Who wins in war?" and focus it on Private Arthur Crenshaw, who blurted out the answer in a few words.

The results of our efforts lead inevitably to several conclusions concerning peace education. The basis for a program of peace education must be both positive and specific. It is a positive program alone that immediately centers the problem on faith in a strong anti-war movement. This is the basic implication that the teacher must convey. But such faith is powerless unless it expresses itself in an active protest against war. It is here that knowledge may be translated into action. The student must survey the nature of war propaganda with a view to an intelligent analysis and breakdown of it. He must learn to sense the relationship of the sources of information and the forces that control its dissemination. Phrases which are in every day use in adult conversation must become meaningful. The term "imperialism" should not mean solely a topic which was part of the history course. When he reads of a

"struggle for foreign markets" he must see himself as an involuntary implement in the conflict. The end product of a positive program will be a thinking individual who will take an active part in the fight against war.

Peace education cannot be an abstraction. It must relate to the life of the student. It must help him forward rather than leave him bewildered. That way lies his strength.

JOSEPH KLEIN.

Seward Park High School.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO CONFERENCE ON BUSINESS EDUCATION

The Fifth Conference on Business Education will continue to emphasize the social phases of business education in accordance with the plans for the series of conferences. The specific problem to be discussed this year is "Business as a Social Institution." The conference will be held June 30 and July 1, at the School of Business, University of Chicago.

The first day of the conference will be devoted to interpretations and amplifications of the concept. That is, just what does "business as a social institution" mean to business and industry, to labor, to the layman, and to educators. In the morning session an authority in each of these fields will give evidence of the extent to which the concept — as interpreted — is

functioning today; the extent to which it should function in a capitalistic democracy; and the ways in which business, labor, and the layman are striving to meet their respective responsibilities. The afternoon session will be devoted to the relative positions and responsibilities of government and vocational training agencies. The respective duties and obligations of government and business will be considered. Ways and means will be suggested for harmonizing the specialized services of different occupational groups with membership in any one group a matter of individual choice.

The second day will be devoted to the responsibilities of education for the development of integrated experiences for effective participation in business as a social institution. Procedures for overcoming the economic illiteracy and the inadequate social philosophy of teachers will be outlined. Learning situations and classroom procedures constructed for the purpose of developing the concept of business as a social institution on the elementary, secondary, and college levels will be presented for evaluation.

Each session will be followed by discussion, questions, and comments from those attending the Conference. Printed programs including the names of the speakers will be available about January 1, 1938. A special luncheon will be served

on campus each day of the Conference. Reservations for living quarters may be made in advance with the University of Chicago Housing Bureau.

ROSA NOTA GAMBI— A TRIBUTE

In the main hall of the Bay Ridge High School has been hung a painting by Arthur Mower copied from the original by Sorolla: "Beach of Valencia by Morning Light." To those of us who know and love Sorolla, it would seem almost as though the Hispanic Museum must have yielded up its own colorful treasure; to those who knew and loved Rosa Nota Gambi, it would seem as if a little of her vibrant personality had been captured on a bit of canvas, to live forever there; to all the hundreds who pass by, bent on daily tasks, it must seem that a bit of sunshine, a bit of life, a bit of inspiration must emanate from this picture.

June, 1936, brought to our modern language department a keen loss through the violent and tragic death of Rosa Nota Gambi, who had just completed her twentieth year of service at Bay Ridge. Her friends of the faculty felt that the school which she had served so long and so joyously should contain a fitting memorial. The answer was Sorolla—Sorolla with all his color, his sunlight, his love of life, his charming por-

trayal of everyday scenes, in short, Sorolla's "Beach of Valencia," so reminiscent of Mrs. Gambi's native Sicilian shore, so reminiscent to her friends, of her own charm and sweetness, her love of nature and her love of her fellow-man.

A committee of the Modern Language Department, acting for the faculty of the School, happily located, with the help of the Hispanic Museum, an artist whose understanding of Sorolla enabled him to reproduce for us in the original colors and the original size this masterpiece of a great Spanish Painter (Arthur Mower of 12 Willowdale Court, Montclair, New Jersey). He accomplished what seemed impossible: he has captured with his brush the very spirit, as well as the loveliness of the original.

We are proud to display in our already lovely halls a picture of such radiant beauty; we are thoughtful when we remember how the one whom it commemorates loved to bring to us all, in many little ways, the sweetness and joy of living; we are reverent when we recall the personality of Rosa Nota Gambi.

MARION HACKEDORN.
Bay Ridge High School.

INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS A NEW PROBLEM FOR AMERICAN TEACHERS AND COMMUNITY LEADERS

The Department of Educational
Sociology, New York University,

announces a course in education for
intercultural relations, Spring Term
—1938.

Lecturer: RACHEL DAVIS DUBOIS.
Teachers and community leaders
are taking an increased interest in
assisting boys and girls to make
successful adjustments in their
home, school, and community en-
vironments. Tensions which exist
among diverse groups make such
adjustments difficult.
This course deals with:

1. Problems of personality mal-
adjustment, which may be
due partially to misunder-
standings between members
of different culture groups.
2. An understanding and appre-
ciation of the values of di-
verse culture groups.
3. Methods by which these
values can be constructively
shared in order to build a
richer American culture.
4. Information, experiences,
tested educational practices,
and teaching materials that
can be used in classroom situ-
ations and extra-curricular ac-

tivities for intercultural edu-
cation.

5. Ways in which the school
and community can coöperate.

Rachel Davis-DuBois is Director
of the Commission on Intercultural
Education, Progressive Education
Association.

Besides many years of experience
as both a teacher and principal in
public schools, Mrs. DuBois has
assisted more than forty high
schools in their intercultural
projects and has conducted courses
for teachers at Boston University;
Temple University, Philadelphia;
Teachers College, Columbia; New
York University; The University
of California. Mrs. DuBois is the
editor of several books and re-
ports, and the author of magazine
articles on important topics in this
field. She has just had published
a manual, *Adventures in Inter-
cultural Education*, in experimental
form.

*Friday: 4:15-6:00. Class be-
gins February 4th.

In the catalogue this course is
listed as "Education in Human
Relations," 120.107.

REVIEWS

REMEDIAL AND CORRECTIVE INSTRUCTION IN READING

By J. M. McAllister, Appleton-
Century, \$2.00.

This book successfully attempts
to meet the growing demand for
information about remedial reading

in the high schools. It is painfully
obvious by now that the high
schools must assume as part of
their task instruction in reading.
The estimates vary concerning the
number of non-readers or slow
readers in our high schools. But

clearly, to any observer, they are sufficiently numerous to constitute a serious challenge to those who would make our schools sanctuaries for all the people instead of institutions for exclusive and selective breeding. The matter of reading is particularly important in any scheme of democratic education. Actually, it would hardly be rash to say that democracy itself depends upon the literacy of the masses, upon their capacity to subjugate the written word. This is one of the ineluctable realities which we must face and which, ostrich-like, we have refused for too long to take cognizance of.

Dr. McCallister's text offers helpful advice to all who would come to grips intelligently with this problem. In simple, untechnical language, he presents a systematic survey of the latest findings, in this comparatively new area. Dr. McCallister discusses the character and causes of reading retardation, the survey of reading achievement, diagnostic and remedial procedures. Illustrative case studies supply graphic examples of the remedial program in action. The latter chapters of the book are devoted to a treatment of guiding reading activities in the various content subjects. This material is especially valuable since each subject presents its own problems for which unique remedial measures must be devised. The general principles enunciated earlier in the

text are valuable. But more so are these concrete suggestions for the specific fields.

The final chapter of the book describes the technique of administering a reading program and deals with such matters as administrative provisions, supervising and training teachers.

Our only objection to this volume is the extreme aridity of the style. But, fortunately, it does not get in the way too much. Some prefer to have the truth made beautiful. Dr. McCallister's talents do not lie here. For compact, concise statement, however, he leaves little to be desired. We earnestly commend this to your attention. It is worth more than a perusal. It ought to become part of every departmental procedure. Present signs seem to indicate that it will. When it does become an intrinsic part of the instructional process, the disinherited will for the first time have come into their own.

A. H. LASS.

DRAMATIC TOURNAMENTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By Magdalene Kramer, Teachers College, Columbia University, \$1.85.

Dramatic tournaments, as here defined, consist of the presentation of plays in competition. Dr. Kramer describes, in great detail, the growth history of this form of secondary school activity. She

analyzes the purposes of the tournament and supplies full descriptive procedures for running it. The study concludes with a summary of educational outcomes of the tournament and a list of conclusions and recommendations for further study and experimentation.

A competent and thorough piece of work, "Dramatic Tournaments" seems to us to have a very limited scope, indeed. Questionable, too, is the unnecessary stress it lays on the competitive motive in an educational system already too thoroughly permeated with unhealthy competition. But for those who can see no flaws in the tournament ideas, Dr. Kramer's work should prove very helpful indeed. For it is a highly practical guide for the doing of the job although it is unfortunately not sufficiently critical of the educational implications inherent in the very notion of the dramatic tournament as an adjunct to the educational process or as itself an educative activity.

A. H. L.

REDISCOVERING THE ADOLESCENT

By Hedley S. Dimock, Association Press, New York City, \$2.75.

This rather detailed work says a study of the personality development of adolescent boys. The emphasis throughout is on the "normal" adolescents rather than on the deviates. To secure the illuminating data here presented, Dr. Dimock's investigators

observed two hundred normal adolescents over a period of two years. The boys, in the course of the study, passed from pre-pubescence through puberty. Thus the investigators were able to observe the changes that took place in the boys paralleling their pubescent development.

Space does not permit of adequate summary of these, at times, startling findings. Suffice it to say that every educator, whose self-imposed task is the adolescent with all his inchoate impulses and complex personal and social adjustments, cannot afford to neglect these results. This is no rancid re-hash. It is a fresh venture into the unknown and it returns laden with precious baggage. The charts and pictographs graphically illustrate the several points with a wholly unique dramatic effectiveness.

The study covers such matters as the expanding world of the adolescent, his personality and behavior, his choice of friends, his play groups, his emancipation from parental ties, his moral and religious life, his physical changes.

Even if you gag at the thought of positing generalizations on the basis of what seems to be inconclusive evidence, you ought seriously to con the perfectly amazing patience and assiduity which has gone into this work.

A. H. L.

AN ABC OF ENGLISH USAGE
By H. A. Treble and G. H.
Vallins, Oxford University Press.
\$1.50.

This is a practical pocket-size handbook presenting in dictionary form the main elements of English accidence and syntax. It won't take the place of the spicy Fowlers but it does perform its function efficiently, and graphically. Every point is amply documented and illustrated.

An interesting feature of this handbook is the recognition it takes of American idiom and usage, a fact which might well be noted by our more rabid native anglophiles.

Dr. Henry Seidel Canby writes an interesting little preface in which he pleads for the ultimate sanction which linguistic rules have in daily use. He raps the Latinizing pedants and purists at whose hands the language has suffered far more than from slang. He feels that "final standards of correctness must be derived from users, not from rules. But these users must themselves be keenly aware of the tradition, the entire meaning, and the economy of their speech."

This volume is by no means definitive, nor is it free from a certain arbitrariness and bias. But it does attempt a sensible compromise between linguistic logic and circumstance. It makes a very conscious effort to present

the living language as it is spoken and written. Yet it does not fall into any of the uncritical excesses of some of our modern philologists.

A. H. L.

THE BEDSIDE BOOK OF FAMOUS
AMERICAN STORIES

Edited by Angus Burrell and
Bennett A. Cerf, Random House,
\$3.00.

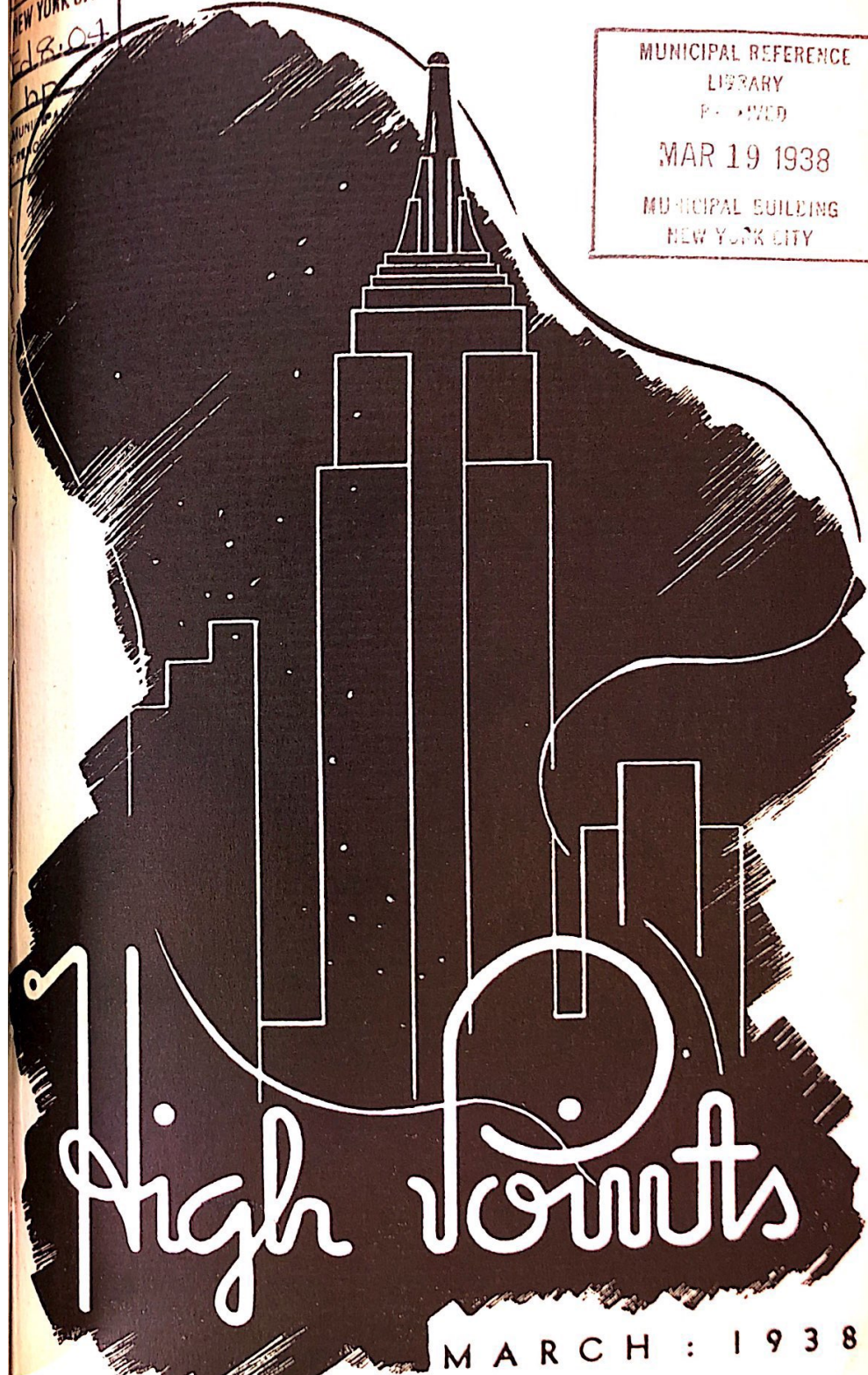
There isn't much to say about this anthology except that it comprises over twelve hundred pages of beautifully printed matter covering the editors' discriminating preferences from Irving's "Legend of Sleepy Hollow" to Saroyan's "The Daring Young Man on the Flying Trapeze." Most of the American immortals in the short story are here represented.

Of course, everyone has his pet choices which the editors do not respect. But no sensible man ought to go to an anthology merely to find his prejudices confirmed. "The Bedside Book" despite its apparent catholicity of taste is fundamentally an individual selection, marked by fine judgment and sensitive evaluation, but still quite personal, as every anthology must be, in an ultimate sense. But even with this inevitable handicap, "The Bedside Book" makes excellent reading. There isn't a story here whose literary polish or substance can be questioned by even the most finicky.

A. H. L.

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School of Industrial Art.....	MILDRED E. HARSTON
Yorkville High School of Women's Service Trades.....	FREDA L. ALEXANDER
Samuel Gompers High School.....	T. S. MURPHY
Brooklyn High School of Women's Garment Trades.....	NORMA ROMER
Central Commercial High School.....	CATHERINE B. DWYER

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A PROJECT IN TUBERCULOSIS CONTROL

The value of the tuberculin test and chest x-ray as preventive procedures in public health has long been established. The tuberculin test produces a skin reaction which shows whether tuberculosis germs were ever present in the body; the chest x-ray shows whether there is any active pathological lung condition. The former test is a gross indicator; the latter is conclusive. The combination offers an effective diagnostic method of segregating active cases of tuberculosis.

The Health Education Department of Stuyvesant High School considered it an excellent project to have these tests given to our students. First, it would mean the promotion of exemplary public health measures. Second, it would be an experience in vitalized, functional Health Education for our students. Also, it would offer a chance for the practical application of principles of integration, when school and public health facilities might be enlisted in a coöperative enterprise toward mutually desirable goals.

Our plan was to have the tests given at our school with the assistance of the Department of Health. We found the Bureau of Tuberculosis keenly interested in our proposal. Dr. Edwards,

director of the bureau, offered full technical assistance, with just one provision: we must have at least 500 boys for the tests, to make it worth while to assign personnel and equipment. Both tests were to be given free to all students whose parents consented to have them given.

What made the situation especially appealing to the health authorities was the fact that the idea originated with us, and that we were prepared to provide for all the details in the organization and administration of the tests. It was the first instance in their experience where a school had taken the initiative in this manner.

These tests had been given in schools before, notably Benjamin Franklin and Wadleigh High Schools. In both these cases, however, the entire project was conceived and managed by the public health officials; the school played a secondary role. In our case, it was essentially an original educational project, with the Department of Health supplying only such technical assistance as it was peculiarly equipped to provide.

The preliminary arrangements agreed upon, we got under way. We selected our afternoon session health education classes, about

1300 boys, as the group with which we would work. On the gymnasium floor and in the hygiene classes, each class devoted one lesson to a discussion of the project. This work was greatly aided by the coöperation of the National Tuberculosis Association. At our request, they promptly loaned us a movie strip which showed how the tests were given. In addition, they sent us some excellent pamphlets, copies of which were given to each boy. These were read in class, and then taken home to be discussed by the boy with his parents.

No doubt almost all the boys were readily won over to the idea. However, we had to have the written parents' consent before we could proceed. We drew up a consent form, had it mimeographed and distributed. This form explained the value of the tests from the parents' point of view, and had a detachable statement of consent to be signed by the parent.

The first day the return of signed consents in all our classes was between 50-65%. The second day brought the average up to about 75%. After this, a list of delinquents in each class was drawn up. When we were finally satisfied that none of this group would win their parents' consent, we urged them to bring their parents to school for an interview. Where the parents found it im-

possible to come to school, they sent a signed note stating the reason for withholding consent.

It was a revelation to learn how willing the parents were to talk things over with us. For the next week and a half we were literally besieged by parents in all frames of mind. Many were the victims of all sorts of prejudices and misinformation. Some were suspicious of our intentions, fearing their boys would be used as mere guinea pigs; some objected to any sort of injection; some were willing to have an x-ray but no tuberculin; some had no articulate objection, yet refused consent. Some had sectarian health scruples, as in the cases of a few who were Christian Scientists.

We had not anticipated that the greatest need for education lay with the parents, and not with the children. However, it is only fair to remember that these were a decided minority. Many, on the other hand, wrote or visited us to offer their gratitude for our extension of so valuable a health service.

A steady persistence and vigorous follow-up finally won us gratifying results. After two weeks we were able to tell the Bureau of Tuberculosis that we were able to begin the actual tests with an average consent of 95% for our entire group. Of the remainder, about 1% were boys

who had been continuously absent from school; the other 4% were implacable. Out of more than 1300 boys, less than 100 were not to take the tuberculin test; of this number about 40 were to take the x-ray.

Period	Students	Tuberculin Test		X-Ray Test	
		Taking Test	Per Cent	Taking Test	Per Cent
1	223	215	96.4	220	98.6
2	251	228	90.9	230	91.6
3	244	229	93.8	239	97.9
4	250	232	92.8	242	96.8
5	173	169	97.6	170	98.3
6	233	222	95.3	223	95.7
Totals	1,374	1,295	94.7	1,324	96.8

In making final arrangements with the Bureau of Tuberculosis, we agreed to include in the x-ray test our morning session health education classes. Since the x-ray machine was to be at school, we might as well make full use of it, rather than have it remain idle half a day. We estimated that the morning session group would bring our x-ray totals to about 2400 boys.

The tuberculin test was given on alternate days for one week. This allowed for readings of first reaction, and re-testing where indicated. The following week the x-rays were to be given, to take three days. Thus, using only 6 actual working days, the whole procedure would be finished in two weeks' time. The Bureau of Tuberculosis assigned 3 doctors and 3 nurses for each day of the tuberculin, under the direction of their Supervisor of Clinics, Dr.

Robins. This staff was to work with the school physician, Dr. Palitz. The x-ray would be given through the WPA project assigned to the bureau, with all the necessary technical personnel and equipment. The Powers portable machine to be used would be assembled and operated at the school by Mr. Ross Wilson and his staff.

The apparatus for the tuberculin test was set up in the gymnasium. The boys were a little apprehensive at first. After the novelty passed off, however, everybody had a grand time showing everybody else his injection, and making comparisons. At the end of the week Dr. Robins summarized the whole procedure by giving each class a short talk, and answering all questions.

The following week the x-ray, including morning as well as afternoon session boys, was given.

At the end of the three days we found that 2800 boys had been x-rayed. This exceeded by 400 our original estimate.

By the time this is printed these pictures will have been read and the results tabulated. Those who are found to be sick with tuberculosis will be treated in a confidential manner through their private physicians. Where the family has no private doctor, the boy will be referred to the Department of Health district center. All of these cases will be followed up by our department to see that proper contacts with remedial agencies are established and followed up.

We hope we have started what will be a regular procedure at our school. It is our plan to give the same tests next term to the other half of our student body, who are not registered for Health Education this term. The tuberculin tests, as with our present group, will be given only to the entering classes, thus only once in his career to each boy. The x-ray will be repeated once a year until graduation.

We made many mistakes. For

one thing, there was insufficient integration with other school departments. There should have been a poster campaign through the Art Department. We should have used the school newspaper. An assembly could have been devoted to the project. Correlated talks could have been given in the various science departments of the school. Mistakes in the planning and administration of the tests were also made, the elimination of which will make the next survey much more efficient.

However, we are convinced that we have given our students an incomparable first-hand experience with a vital public health technique. It is in the hope that some who read this will consider it a valuable project to inaugurate at their schools, that this report is offered. Such enterprises in integration of school and public health facilities are mighty weapons in relegating to comparative insignificance the scourge of the dreaded "white plague." It is time such weapons were put to use.

JULIUS RASKIN.

Stuyvesant High School.

CHORAL SPEAKING: ADDITIONAL ASPECTS

Liza Grapemen, Orey Mindus
We can make Eliza Blime
Andy Parting, Lee B. Hindus
Foot bring Johnny Sands on
Time.¹

For this recitation Johnny receives a grade—and the sensitive ears of the teacher must listen to at least thirty-nine more students repeat the same selection in practically the same manner. If there are slight variations the torture of both students and teacher may be lessened. However, in the usual procedure of class work, this seldom happens.

This type of oral interpretation goes on from kindergarten through high school for very justifiable reasons. First, with large groups of children, the teacher cannot afford to spend an adequate number of minutes with each individual. Secondly, even with the teacher's greatest effort, children reciting poetry, as such, regard each other as "sissies."

When one has reached maturity the inability to enjoy poetry can then be laid simply to the lack of proper teaching in youth. What is the solution to this corruption of poetry? How to economize on the time of both teacher and pupil? How to arouse his

interest and reveal to him the beauty of the spoken word?

The answer is Choral Speaking or, as it is sometimes known, Choric Speech. This art is no longer in the experimental stage and has proved its worth in elementary, high school and college curricula.

Choral Speaking is a way of bringing poetry to life. It is a way of making poetry dance to rhyme and rhythm. In its effect it is like an orchestra or choral singing. In its method, it uses the dance and the drama. Children are divided, somewhat arbitrarily, into three or four groups of voices. When the choir has been exposed to the appreciation of the poem through socialized interpretation, it is ready for the more definite techniques, such as ear training and voice training. Selections may be taken from all types of poetry—ballads, psalms, dramatic readings and even lyric verse. The chosen poems are then arranged, preferably by the choir, with antiphony or even with counterpoint, to express effectively the thought and the music of the poetry.

What are the values of the activity? Greater self-expression;

¹ Letitia Raubicheck: "How to Teach Good Speech," p. 3.

Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime,
And departing leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time.

freedom of bodily movement; appreciation of rhythm; better vocal quality; improved enunciation; increased respect for language; increased flexibility; a loss of self-consciousness, and above all, the understanding and appreciation of poetry.

How may we use it in the schools? Closely allied with the Activity Program, it may be used in the classroom, the auditorium or the club. As a supplement to community singing in the auditorium, choral speaking is a means of socializing the individual. An amplification of the individual interpretation of literature, it is a means of vitalizing poetry and enhancing poetry's musical values. It provides a rhythmic re-education for speech defectives, and also ear-training in correct sound and language patterns, making the speech and voice improvement a delightful activity. This form of expression is used with children of all ages in groups from twelve to seven hundred in number.

What are some of its "different" aspects? In the Herman Ridder Junior High School, Public School 98, the Bronx, with the consent of our principal, E. R. Maguire, the foreign language teachers have taken up this work in their respective fields. For the first time, these acknowledged values are being applied in this direction. Interesting programs evolve. One instance is the presentation of Sir Walter Scott's trans-

lation of the "Erl King," to be followed by Goethe's German version.

Another phase of choric speech which may interest the younger generation in the spirit of community life is giving voice to the verse and poetry of national feeling. In the nineteenth century choral speaking was used to declare loyalty to some cause. Workers in Holland and in Germany who labored under the abuses incident to the industrial era used verse recitation to proclaim their dissatisfaction. Strongly rhythmic statements of these difficulties in the form of a mass chant, combined with Laban eurythmics, expressed their unhappy situations. An inspiring art form was developed. In the play, "Man and the Masses" by Ernst Toller, produced by the Theatre Guild in 1927, this form of expression reached a dramatic peak. The present dictator of Germany outlawed the "Sprechchor" recently (March, 1937), deeming it to be too powerful a method of demonstration.² How easily one might apply choral speaking towards the expression of democratic ideals!

In the fourteenth century, when religion played such a fervent role in the lives of the laity the church made use of this enthusiasm in its service. Divided into choirs, as are

² *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, April, 1937; *News and Notes. Quarterly Journal of Speech*, October, 1937; "Speech Choirs in Europe," by M. M. Crawford.

the choric groups today, the congregation supplemented the prayers of the priest and the chanting choir boys. Since the modern revival of choral speaking in England, choirs have been heard in Cathedrals in various English cities interpreting biblical drama and verse. T. S. Eliot, in his play, "Murder in The Cathedral," uses this technique of choral speaking throughout the play. In several scenes he directly follows the technique that was used in its earliest form of biblical response.

Today, the popularity of church services is on the wane. Willard Sperry, speaking of the reasons, said, "There is an almost entire absence of any fresh artistic impulse in the conception and conduct of worship. Our ineffectualness is due, in part, to our failure to re-affirm the truth of religion with the temper and technique of the artist. This body of truth must be forever re-created in new, significant forms."³

The tendency toward artificiality in scripture reading can be lessened by a more intense individual interest in the substance of the material. The minister, choir and congregation, when using a form of choric speech, can so blend their voices and thoughts that the worship will reveal the nobility and dignity for which it was written.

³ Robinson: "Selections Arranged for The Speaking Choir," p. 57.

In the public schools, psalm reading has always been a half-hearted affair in spite of the sentiments of the lyric prose. It has always been difficult to discover intelligent pupil readers. They are rare.

At the Herman Ridder Junior High School, as part of the intensive experimental work with all aspects of choral speaking conducted for the better part of four years, a painstaking effort is made to apply choral speaking to biblical literature. Choral Speaking readings of psalms and proverbs by choice groups of children is substituted for individual readings before the grade assemblies. For example, Psalm XXIV is done in this manner:

PSALM XXIV

All: The earth is the Lord's and the fullness thereof; the world and they that dwell therein; For he hath founded it upon the seas and established it upon the floods.

High: Who shall ascend unto the hill of the Lord, Or who shall stand in his holy place?

Middle: He that hath clean hands and a pure heart, who hath not lifted up his soul unto vanity, or sworn deceitfully.

He shall receive blessings from the Lord, and righteousness from the God of his salvation.

Dark, Mid: This is the generation of them that seek Him, that seek thy face, O Jacob!

Dark: Lift up your heads, O ye gates; and be ye lifted up ye everlasting doors; and the King of Glory shall come in.

Light: Who is this King of Glory?

Mid.: The Lord strong and mighty, the Lord mighty in battle.

Dark, Mid.: Lift up your heads O ye gates, and be ye lifted up, ye everlasting doors; and the King of Glory shall come in.

Light: Who is this King of Glory?

All: The Lord of Hosts, He is the King of Glory.

Although this is most effective it requires a great many private rehearsals that time does not usually permit with a group of approximately twenty-five children.

Since the 600 pupils in each of the six grade assemblies in the Herman Ridder Junior High School have worked with the technique of Choral Speaking, either in the classroom, auditorium and club or foreign language groups, psalm arrangements can be taught in about a half hour.

Through this vitalized method of teaching the psalms there is not only a better understanding of the biblical language used, but an appreciation of the thought conveyed in words uncommonly heard in present-day speech. This technique makes it possible for the children to vibrate with the thoughts and feel at one with these ennobling sentiments. The pattern of the psalm is made to involve the entire assembly, a soloist and a small unit more in-

tensively trained in choral speaking.

One of the many psalms worked out for the assembly repertoire follows. This was featured as part of the commencement exercises of June, 1937:

PSALM XXIII

Solo (from stage platform): Let us give thanks.

Chorus (on stage): The Lord is my shepherd, I shall not want.

Chorus and Audience: The Lord is my shepherd, I shall not want.

Solo: He maketh me to lie down in green pastures:

He leadeth me besides the still waters.

Aud. Light: He restoreth my soul.

Aud. Dark: He leadeth me in the paths of righteousness for his name's sake.

Chorus: Yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil;

Aud. all: For thou art with me;

Solo: Thy rod and thy staff they comfort me.

Aud. Light: Thou preparest a table before me in the presence of mine enemies,

Aud. Dark: Thou anointest my head with oil,

* Since the students study choral speaking in the auditorium for forty minutes each week, they have been divided into three voice groups: Light, Medium and Dark. These three categories usually coincide with the three groupings of the music teachers: sopranos, tenors, and bass.

Chorus and Audience: My cup runneth over.

Solo: Surely goodness and mercy will follow me all the days of my life:

Chorus and Audience: And I will dwell in the house of the Lord forever.

Amazing results can be obtained in applying this same method of group speech in another school activity which is generally regarded as a monotonous ordeal.

School children are taught the Pledge of Allegiance at an early age today, too early in fact for them to understand its significance. They learn it by rote and are conditioned to repeat it so that it soon becomes a meaningless rigmarole. The only edifying comment the writer ever heard in regard to the pledge was that of a teacher explaining to a child the pronunciation and syllabification of the word "indivisible." This is the usual treatment in mass production of patriotic material.

In an effort to counteract this tendency, the Pledge of Allegiance is arranged for choral speaking and re-introduced to the school as part of a pageant:

Columbia, dressed in stars and spangles, is depicted standing on the apex of the triangular platform on the auditorium stage before the curtain. On different levels leading up to the top, stand boys and girls dressed as farmers, laborers, teachers, mechanics, house-

wives, industrial workers, and so on, the citizenry of the nation. Each explains the basis of his or her allegiance to Columbia.

After this progression, a child from among the six hundred children in the auditorium stands and asks why children owe allegiance to Columbia.

She gives in simple words a child's philosophy of democracy, making them understand their duty to their country and their good fortune in being Americans. The benefits that can be derived only from a democracy are graphically described and contrasted to conditions existing in other countries.

A stereopticon slide is flashed on a side panel of the auditorium. It shows the following choric arrangement for the Pledge of Allegiance. This is read by the whole assemblage after an appropriate color guard entrance has been effected:

PLEDGE OF ALLEGIANCE⁵

Solo (saluting): I pledge allegiance,

All (saluting): We pledge allegiance

Light: To the flag of the United States of America (*quickened tempo*),

Dark: To the flag of the United States of America (*solemn confirmation*),

All: And to the republic for which

⁵ Approved by the Daughters of The American Revolution, Bronxville Chapter, November, 1937.

it stands (*vigorously*);
Solo: One nation indivisible,
All: One nation indivisible,
Light: With liberty
Dark: And justice
All: For (*pause*) all.

The device of juxtaposing contrastingly pitched voices vitalizes the mood, which results in quickening both pulse and thought. For many pupils this is the first time that modulations of the voice and intonations of the phrases bring the theme of the Pledge to its fullest meaning.

This method of voicing the Pledge is being adopted by the whole school as the standard for presentation. They sense its message more keenly and appreciate it as a foundation stone in our government.

These results are not confined to this school alone. Some hundred and fifty teachers who are

students in the writer's adult classes are encouraged to use this method because of the outstanding results already attained through this procedure.

A re-arrangement and re-writing of patriotic and biblical literature for school use promises well for what philosopher Royce called "enlightened loyalties."

Schools, community clubs, YMCA units, and church groups may gain much from this lead to "Voicing America."

Since Choral Speaking is no longer an entirely new approach in speech work, but has produced effective results in many elementary and high school classes, these new phases will serve as an embellishment to what has already been accomplished.

SEYMOUR S. BAUMAN,
Herman Ridder Junior High School.

A SURVEY OF THE STATUS OF PHYSICAL SCIENCE IN NEW YORK CITY HIGH SCHOOLS

PRELIMINARY REPORT

For a number of years teachers of physics and chemistry have been much concerned by the fact that the enrolment of pupils in Physical science i.e. physics and chemistry, has not kept pace with the increase in the high school population. That the number of pupils studying physics and chem-

istry has not increased in proportion to the total high school enrolment is shown by the following extract taken from the Report of Dr. Warren W. Knox, Supervisor of Science of the State Department of Education issued January 1935.

TABLE 1

(Figures taken from page 6 of the above report)

	Total Public Secondary School Enrolment	Actual Physics Enrolment	Percent	Actual Chemistry Enrolment	Percent
1923 (actual)	271,719	20,784	7.65	21,741	7.94
1934 (estimated)	628,264	38,796	6.17	45,834	7.28

These are the figures for New York State, and although the secondary school population has increased more than 100%, the enrolment in both physics and chemistry shows a decrease. No comparison for New York City alone could be made because the figures for the actual enrolment in New York City in 1923 are not available.

As a first step the committee decided to submit a questionnaire to the seniors of eight selected high schools and from the tabulation and analysis of the replies to seek the causes and possible remedies for the lack of growth in these two vital parts of our high school curriculum. Through the kindness of Dr. John L. Tildsley, at the time Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Science, the questionnaire was submitted to all

seniors in the following high schools in January 1936:

Manhattan: High School of Commerce, Boys; Seward Park High School, Co-educational

Brooklyn: Samuel J. Tilden High School, Co-educational; James Madison High School, Co-educational

Bronx: Walton High School, Girls; Evander Childs High School, Co-educational

Queens: Grover Cleveland High School, Co-educational; Far Rockaway High School, Co-educational

The questionnaire was so framed as to give the committee leads for further investigation as to reasons for the failure to elect physics or chemistry, and to enable us to seek possible solutions for the improvement of the situation.

TABLE 2

Summary of Boys' Answers

Boys Going to College.....	771	100%
Studied Physics	170	22.0%
Studied Chemistry	349	45.6
Would have studied Physics if Program Permitted....	352	45.8
Would have studied Chemistry if Program Permitted	188	24.4
Not interested in Physics	155	20.4
Not interested in Chemistry.....	123	16.0

<i>Boys Not Going to College</i>	389	100%
Studied Physics	77	19.8%
Studied Chemistry	144	37.0
Would Have Studied Physics if Program Permitted....	159	41.0
Would Have Studied Chemistry if Program Permitted	117	30.5
Not interested in Physics	187	48.0
Not interested in Chemistry	136	35.0

TABLE 3
Summary of Girls' Answers

<i>Girls Going to College</i>	759	100%
Studied Physics	41	5.4%
Studied Chemistry	179	23.6
Would Have Studied Physics if Program Permitted....	248	32.7
Would Have Studied Chemistry if Program Permitted	237	31.1
Not interested in Physics	274	36.1
Not interested in Chemistry	137	18.1%
<i>Girls Not Going to College</i>	767	100%
Studied Physics	22	2.8%
Studied Chemistry	130	17.0
Would Have Studied Physics if Program Permitted....	194	25.0
Would Have Studied Chemistry if Program Permitted	205	26.7
Not interested in Physics	305	39.7
Not interested in Chemistry	260	33.9

An examination of the figures in Table 2, Boys' Answers, should give all those who are interested in promoting the study of physics and chemistry in our high schools serious food for thought.

1. Of the boys who are planning to go to college twice as many elect chemistry as physics. Why? Is physics less interesting? Is physics more difficult?

2. Of the boys going to college 45.8% would have elected physics and 24.4% would have elected chemistry if their program had

permitted. Why? Are college entrance requirement so weighted as to prevent these boys from electing these subjects as part of their high school course? Are grade advisors shunting these students into other parts of the curriculum that they deem more desirable or essential for the pupil?

3. 20.4% of these same boys declare themselves not interested in physics and 16.0% not interested in chemistry. Why?

4. The figures of the boys who are not planning to go to

college, and whose formal education presumably ends with their graduation from high school demand serious attention. 43% of these boys are graduated without any training in physical science. They go out into a world where the daily life of all persons brings them in contact with numerous applications of scientific principles, and yet these boys will have had no training even in elementary physical science.

An examination of the figures in Table 3 — Girls' Answers — shows a situation even more discouraging. Out of 1526 girls who were graduated from our high schools in New York City only 63 studied physics, and 309 studied chemistry. What is wrong with our curriculum in both these

sciences that 579 declare themselves not interested in physics and 397 not interested in chemistry? What is wrong with our programming that 442 wished to elect physics but could not do so? What is wrong with our programming that 442 girls wished to elect chemistry but could not do so?

The committee submits this preliminary report in the hope that teachers of physics and chemistry will be interested in the questions raised and hopes to continue the investigation into the causes and to develop a remedial program.

A. N. KERNER,

Chairman, Committee of Physics
Club of New York.
Stuyvesant High School.

A QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE SURVEY ON PHYSICAL SCIENCES

You, as a senior, are in a position to give valuable assistance, based on your personal experience, in the make-up of the future high school course. Please read

the following questions carefully and answer them. You need not sign your name, but merely indicate in the appropriate square whether you are a boy or a girl.

☐ Boy ☐ Girl

Check one:

Do you plan to go to college?..... Yes..... No.....
Have you studied physics?..... Yes..... No.....
Have you studied chemistry?..... Yes..... No.....

If you have NOT studied physics, place a check to the left of the reason or reasons that best explain why you have not.

-(a) Too hard.
-(b) Not interested in it.
-(c) Program difficulties prevented my taking it.
-(d) Don't know what physics is.
-(e) Don't need it for college entrance.

.....(f) If you have any additional reasons, please state them below
Would you have taken physics if your program had permitted Yes..... No.....

If you have NOT studied chemistry, place a check to the left of the reason or reasons best explaining why you have not.

-(a) Too hard.
.....(b) Not interested in it.
.....(c) Program difficulties prevented my taking it.
.....(d) Don't know what Chemistry is.
.....(e) Don't need it for college entrance.
.....(f) If you have any additional reasons, please state them below

Would you have taken chemistry if your program had permitted?..... Yes..... No.....

SOME MORE IMPLICATIONS OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ARTICULATION AND INTEGRATION

In the March, 1937 issue of *HIGH POINTS* Mr. Samuel D. Moskowitz, principal of P. S. 70, Queens, discussed the implications for the high school teacher of the report issued by the Bayne Committee on Articulation and Integration. In his article he made the following statements:

1. That "his many friends in various high schools" reproached him for sending "morons" and "imbeciles" to them.

2. That he, too, when a high school teacher and first assistant, complained that the "elementary schools were sending inadequately equipped pupils" into the high schools "unable to gain information from the printed page, with no adequate number concept, with no knowledge of the essentials of

English grammar, etc."

3. That he was determined that, as an elementary school principal, "graduates from (his) school were to be equipped for high school work."

4. That within a year of this resolve he found it was not "practical."

Thereupon he issued the following injunctions:

1. That we stop complaining about the practice of sending "morons" and "imbeciles" into the high schools.

2. That we stop "squawking about misfits and go to work."

3. That there be developed "a will on (our) part to drop (our) criticisms and attack (our) problem."

4. That we become "teachers in

the best sense of the term, (and) place in the background (our) interest in subject matter."
5. That we become "converted" to the "philosophy" of Dean Briggs, Professor Lindquist, and Dr. Wiley (which proposes to exploit the potentialities of all types of students, and to secure to each an education adapted to his ability and needs). Since Mr. Moskowitz was a teacher and first assistant in the high schools, he knows, we are told, our "problems from (our) point of view, and from (his) present outlook as an elementary school principal." However a careful examination of his article failed to make this avowal evident. Nowhere is there as much as mention, much less particularization, of our problem. The spirit of the article breathed unqualified rejection of our point of view. A glance at the above demands of Mr. Moskowitz literally declared us guilty without trial because there was lacking an impartial treatment of both points of view. It is to restore the balance that this article is being written.

Mr. Moskowitz intimates that the eleven years which found him in the high schools also found him under a complete misapprehension of the reasons which impelled elementary school principals to send inadequately-equipped pupils to him. For eleven years, in the high schools, we must believe, his opinions were really unfounded—and in these last six years the

denly manifested itself. Not denying such a possibility, it needs must yield to the more probable explanation that one tends to understand best the problems of the institution which is momentarily our concern.

In the aforementioned article, Mr. Moskowitz explains the situation, the conditions and the motives which caused him to change his convictions and adopt a "new" philosophy and a different practice relative to the treatment of problem children. How could he reconcile his opinion that inadequately equipped pupils should not be sent into the high schools with the adoption of a practice that necessarily brought them there? Undoubtedly, Mr. Moskowitz was in a dilemma. What was he to do? We fully appreciate his problem—without agreeing that his solution was the best or correct one. Would that he had done the same for us!

What practice, then, did he adopt? "Bright and normal children... must meet the standards, especially those set in English, reading and arithmetic. Failure to meet these standards means *repetition* of the work of the grade or reclassification into a "2" (slow) class. . . . All slow learners in the "2" classes are promoted each term, regardless of grade standards set for normal and bright children. . . . Slow learners are kept busy at tasks they can com-

plete with success and are thus kept working to the best of their abilities. . . . Downright indolence and indifference are punished with failure."

What is the philosophy upon which such a practice is based? We are given:

1. Commissioner Wiley: "It (the public high school) must serve the needs of all types of adolescents. Under the new program the pupils who are preparing for college will be served even more effectively and satisfactorily than has been possible heretofore. At the same time the flexibility that is possible in curricular adjustments under the new plan will enable a school to meet its responsibility to all groups, whatever their aims and objectives in life."

2. Professor Lindquist of Ohio State University: "There are two kinds of failures. First, there is failure to achieve a task that has arbitrarily been set for one, in the planning of which one has had no part, to whose goal one has never given consent, the purpose of which one does not understand. If the school sets such tasks it is the school that fails and not the child. To say that good comes from such meaningless failure is to me incomprehensible. There is, on the other hand, the failure to accomplish a task that is within one's powers, a task whose purpose one understands, and to whose goal one has given

inner consent, a task in whose planning one has participated. The result of such failure should fall squarely on one's own shoulders; in the interest of one's own development one should have to face the consequences."

3. Dean Briggs: "Acceptance of pupils in a school carries with it the obligation to offer an education that can be achieved by them with a reasonable degree of success."

No one will question the need for the schools to recognize the soundness and justice of such a philosophy. It is imperative that individual differences be noted, that curricula be adopted to the varying needs of a large and heterogeneous group and that effective procedures be adopted to develop as many of the potentialities of our children as possible. But the plea of Mr. Moskowitz does not end here. He wishes to associate this philosophy with a definite educational and administrative policy. He seems to feel a necessary relationship between such a philosophy and the essentials of the Bayne Report; he urges, and through a happy juxtaposition of arguments, forces this philosophy to justify the 100% promotion plan and the 6-3-3 (junior high school) plan.

Time and again Mr. Moskowitz begs the high school teachers to be converted to the *philosophy* of Dean Briggs and Superintendent Bayne. Well, who hasn't accepted

the *philosophy*? Acceptance of a philosophy, however, is not identical with agreement upon procedures of achieving it.

Now, of course, the Bayne Report also "recommends health examinations for all entering children, special classes for handicapped children, ability grouping, special curricula to fit community and pupil needs, changes in classroom and equipment procedure, adequate school cumulative records, well trained professional personnel."

No advocate of progressivism in education will find fault with most of these recommendations; however, it is presumptuous to indicate that agreement with such principles necessitates the acceptance of the 100% promotion plan or the 6-3-3 plan.

High schools as well as elementary schools have changed and are continually changing their educational objectives, philosophies and procedures in order better to accord with the needs of the times, the community and the individual. Whatever has not yet been done is not due to lack of acquiescence on our part to the philosophy of Dean Briggs and others, but to these facts:

1. The cost of enforcing these recommendations would be so tremendous that it is foolish to believe they can be put into effect even within a reasonably *distant* time. Yet Mr. Moskowitz declares that these "recommendations in the re-

port are vitally necessary and must be adopted *before* the item quoted (100% promotion plan etc.) can be put into effect." And he continues: "the retarded children who object to placement in elementary school classes with 'kids and babies' *can't* wait three to five years. These boys and girls, discipline problems, truants, and the stuff from which our delinquents and criminals are made, clamor for immediate help."

2. He further states that the "fine plan of Superintendent Grady which proposes to provide adequate vocational schools of elementary and secondary grade cannot help us at present." Why not? Is it because we have not been sufficiently converted to the philosophy of Dean Briggs? Of course not. The simple answer is time and cost. Now, I submit that when it is impossible to effect even one basic recommendation, how can one hope to introduce all of them? And, it must be remembered that all or most of them are essential *before* "the item quoted can be put into effect."

There is a further difficulty: trade school principals refuse to accept the type of pupil whom Mr. Moskowitz is sending there. He says, "Efforts to obtain the transfer of such children to adjustment classes in junior high school or trade schools proved futile. Everywhere the cry was, 'We have no room for your chil-

dren because we have too many problem cases of our own.' Principals of vocational schools refused to accept these overage retarded children unless they came with diplomas."

What conclusions can one reach from this information? First, that the procedure used (individual assignments, individual workbooks, motivation, etc.) by Mr. Moskowitz to solve the problem of retardation, failed to achieve their purpose. Secondly, that vocational and trade schools were used as a dumping ground for overage and retarded pupils. Thirdly, that the principals of these schools finding it difficult to solve such problems were complaining. Fourthly, that to grant these problem children a diploma would secure them admission to a trade school, despite complaints.

What did Mr. Moskowitz do in the light of these conditions? He adopted the simple expedient of granting diplomas. He admits, however, his awareness "of the danger inherent in (his) practices. There is always the possibility that a week or a term after a slow child has been admitted to a vocational school he will knock at the door of an academic high school and ask to be admitted to a general or commercial course." Precisely!

What have we here? First, an admission of failure on the part of the elementary schools to solve the problem; secondly, an inability

or unwillingness on the part of the vocational schools to undertake a solution for all problem children; and thirdly, a demand from Mr. Moskowitz that now the academic high schools undertake part of this burden. But are the academic high schools prepared to meet this task? I believe the following factors militate against a proper solution in the academic high schools:

(a) The habits of children of high school age are more fixed, less malleable, and, therefore, less subject to tempering by teachers. Being adolescents, they are more conscious of receiving treatment different from that accorded to the average or bright students. This may result in the development of undesirable emotional and mental complexes.

(b) The high school teacher has been trained and expected to become a specialist in his particular subject field and is consequently not well qualified to handle the problem of the under-privileged child. Until quite recently high school teachers had selective and almost homogeneous groups and training to meet the problems of the under-privileged was superfluous, whereas the elementary school teacher, continually confronted with unselective heterogeneous groups, was specially trained and is at present best qualified for the solution of these problems.

(c) The absence for the most part in the present high school

curricula of those activities and courses which are best calculated to develop the potentialities of these children.

That is not to say that the high school teachers have not worked hard to solve the problems of these children. Courses of study are continually being developed which will best meet their needs; different diplomas are granted on this basis; differentiated courses of academic subjects are prepared and given by specially equipped teachers; diagnostic testing and remedial teaching administered; home conditions investigated, and so forth. At present the First Assistants' Association is preparing special syllabi for the non-academically minded students. But it is toilsome work and we are not always rewarded with success. And why not? Why have the elementary, the vocational and academic high schools generally failed to solve these problems? It is because basically no procedural or administrative changes can eliminate or solve the problem of retardation. As Mr. Moskowitz himself declares: "A much more vital factor in determining school success than retardation is the socio-economic background of the children who attend a particular school." Is it within the province of the school teacher to reform the socio-economic background of the children?

3. A "well trained professional personnel" is one of the vitally

necessary units of the Bayne Committee recommendations. How does Mr. Moskowitz propose to get this "well trained professional personnel?" Are any being trained today? How many are needed? Is our present teaching staff prepared to meet the needs of so radical a change, or are we to scrap the present staff? If we hope to get it by appointing new teachers, where will the money come from? Not only does our Board of Education not dare ask for the millions of dollars more which such a program would entail, but feels itself obliged to return money already appropriated for its functions when hypersensitive taxpayers object. It is the teacher and labor organizations that have continually urged the appointment of such a well trained professional personnel, health examinations, special classes for handicapped children—which suggestions have met with cold hostility from selfish and shortsighted groups.

4. If no additional sums of money for the appointment of teachers are forthcoming, then it is obviously impossible to continue with individualization of instruction without adding to the already intolerable burden of the classroom teacher. Can Mr. Moskowitz, in all conscience, demand that the secondary or elementary school teacher assume greater responsibilities than they now have? Does he not know that the provision for individualized instruc-

tion among the various ability groups within a class has necessitated an unconscionable amount of extra work and worry for the teacher? Does he believe that teacher efficiency is increased by adding to already heavy responsibilities?

At this point one must revert to the "so-called 100% promotion plan" which Mr. Moskowitz advocates. He says: "Those who have criticized the (Bayne) report call it a 100% Plan because they have failed to read or note all the provisions of the plan and have concentrated their attack on section 3 subdivision 5. This provision states 'in general all pupils should move on to the next grade or class after each classification. This requires that the course of study be enriched or modified to meet the needs of each individual and that education in each term begin where it has left off the previous term. Being in a grade should not mean having reached any fixed standards, rather having been in school a certain length of time and having attained achievement proportionate to one's ability. This assumes that standards of expectancy be formulated for each child.'"

Discounting this gratuitous slap at the high school teachers who have both individually and collectively, broadly and particularly, examined the recommendations and the implications of the Bayne report, then if what he says is

true, a *careful* reading of the report should prove that it is not a 100% promotion plan. Allowing even for the broadest permissible construction it is difficult to see how any one can interpret the above statement, stripped of circumlocutions, in any other way than in pronouncing it to be such a plan. The report itself admits it in declaring that "being in a grade should not mean having reached any fixed standard." One is promoted not for having achieved fixed standards, but "rather (for) having been in school a certain length of time and having attained achievement proportionate to one's ability." It is, then, not for Mr. Moskowitz to deny it to be a 100% Plan, but to justify such a plan, if he wishes.

If it is objected that in order to be promoted one must also have "attained achievement proportionate to one's ability," and that indifference and indolence will be punished with non-promotion, let us also remember that the Report uses chronological age as a determinant in promotion, with or without "achievement proportionate to one's ability." Thus indifference and indolence may not always be punished with non-promotion, and might, therefore, actually be encouraged. Such lowering of standards and inculcation of potentially harmful attitudes for the problem children cannot but communicate itself to the average or bright students, for

it is very contagious. If inadequately prepared students entered high schools before and do so now, there will be confusion worse confounded hereafter. Students thus will receive diplomas and will therefore be theoretically qualified to do all that the latter imply, but actually society and higher educational institutions must understand that that condition does not really obtain.

Moreover, it will be almost impossible to adopt this scheme of promotion in high schools, for it will mean the superposition of a relatively *flexible* course sequence upon the present *rigid grade* sequence.

If adopted, it will result in:

(a) The complete lack of meaning of grade designations for both general achievement and subject completion; it will necessitate a thorough overhauling of administrative practices and syllabi revision on the basis of 100% promotion.

(b) A confusing record of the students' progress obscured further by transfers and promotions, by the impossibility of recording the large number of elements involved in such progress, and by the inherent differences of the recorders.

(c) The practical impossibility in sequential subjects of employing the class recitation technique for a group characterized by innumerable variations in achievement ability.

It is important to remember

also that the educational authorities quoted (Briggs, Wiley, Lindquist), although cleverly placed in a position of *impliedly* granting sanction to the 100% Plan, *actually* do not. They are merely calling for a program that will meet the needs of all types of pupils (the necessity for which, we all agree, exists), not hallowing a particular procedure. And that when Dr. Wiley says "The public high school is no longer merely a college preparatory institution," he does not mean that it should not be such at all.

To prove, however, that to retard a pupil is not to solve the problem, Mr. Moskowitz falls into the fatuous position of urging that to promote him is to solve it. He says "The lowest ratings on any standardized test given to large groups of New York City children generally are obtained by schools with the highest rates of retardation." By this time Mr. Moskowitz has completely reduced his position to an absurdity, for the cause of the low ratings of the retarded children is not to be sought in the practice of retarding them, but as he himself confessed in "the socio-economic background of the children who attend a particular school." Did not Mr. Moskowitz find that the schools with the highest rates of retardation were those whose children have the poorest kind of a socio-economic background—and that these two factors vary di-

rectly? The correlation is *not* between the rate of retardation and achievement but between the various degrees of socio-economic background and achievement. The latter correlation will present a truer picture of the cause of retardation.

Will, therefore, the 100% Plan or any magic formula or incantation which pedagogues are so fond of employing, wipe out the influence and effect of poor socio-economic backgrounds of retarded children?

Specifically, how does Mr. Moskowitz's present practice compare with the recommendations of the Bayne Committee? He declares:

(a) "Bright and normal children . . . must meet the grade standards. . . .

(b) "Failure to meet these standards results in *repetition* of the work of the grade or reclassification into a '2' (slow) class. . . .

(c) "All slow learners in '2' classes are promoted each term regardless of grade standards set for normal and bright children . . .

(d) "Only those slow children fail to advance to the next grade who refuse to work to the best of their abilities . . . Downright indolence and indifference are punished with failure."

Let us examine the implications of this practice:

(a) Is the 100% Promotion Plan really pertinent for the bright

or normal children? Here there is no problem of retardation, and no 100% Plan is necessary: it operates automatically.

(b) Those who are promoted to a "2" class each term regardless of grade standards undoubtedly fall into the 100% Plan category. Will any one deny it?

(c) To prove that his practice does not constitute 100% promotion, we are told that "*repetition* of the grade or reclassification into a '2' (slow) class results for those in the bright and normal classes who fail to meet grade standards. "Does this sound like 100% promotion?" We still must insist that it not only *sounds* like 100% promotion, but it actually *is*. Mark the emphasis on the word "*repetition*." We are led to believe that *repetition* of a grade is emphasized rather than *reclassification* into a slower group. Yet it is a fact that very few students of the bright and normal classes fail to meet grade standards, and if they do, they do not *repeat* the grade, but are reclassified into average or slow classes respectively. As a result of many inquiries from elementary school teachers, I have found that the rate of retardation of these two groups in several representative schools was so small as to be negligible. I suppose the same obtains in Mr. Moskowitz's school. If we add to this condition his admitted practice of promoting all slow learners *regardless* of grade

standards—is it not rather obvious that a 100% promotion plan is already operating? As a matter of fact, we have a condition whereby the recommendations of an untried and unauthorized plan have been effectuated before its acceptance by responsible educational authorities. If such a practice has been and is common, then the Bayne Report adds nothing of essential importance to present day procedure; it merely legalizes it. What is there left to discuss?

4. How does Mr. Moskowitz justify not exacting the grade standards and the resulting 100% promotion of the slow children? According to Lindquist only "failure to accomplish a task that is within one's power, a task whose purpose one understands, and to whose goal one has given inner consent, a task in whose planning one has participated" constitutes *real* failure. According to Mr. Moskowitz only "downright indolence and indifference" among his slow pupils "are punished with failure." Can there be a "downright indolence and indifference" where the task is within one's power, a task whose purpose one understands? A clear understanding of the conditions which, according to Lindquist, are necessary for success of a task will preclude the existence of indolence and indifference in its performance and there will, therefore, be no failure. Yet the greatest rate of

retardation is found among the slow pupils. Why?

The only possible explanations are:

(a) Promotion regardless of achievement militates against the very existence of the Lindquist essentials.

(b) The causes for retardation are not to be found chiefly in school procedure or administration, but in something external to school life.

5. It is also Mr. Moskowitz's practice to keep out of 1A to 6B classes all children over 13 years of age and tend to eliminate from our 8B school all pupils over 15. Slow pupils at the end of 8B receive the usual elementary school "diplomas." Now, if chronological age is used as a basis for promotion (and it is) then there is a total absence of any kind of standards, even "standards of expectancy . . . for each child" which the Bayne Report recommends. There is, as there naturally must be, a complete breakdown of any standards of achievement as a *sine qua non* for advancement.

Thus, eliminating for the purpose of the present discussion the effect of socio-economic conditions as primary causes for retardation, we may say that the source of the problems arising in the secondary schools may be found in the practices of elementary schools of lowering or destroying standards of achievement and of promoting

students to advanced grades who are both unfit and unprepared to do advanced work. It is for this reason that Mr. Moskowitz's "many friends in various high schools" complain about the "morons" elementary school principals are sending on to the high schools. If Mr. Moskowitz counters with Dean Briggs' "Acceptance of pupils in a school carries with it the obligation to offer an education that can be achieved by them with a reasonable degree of success," may we remind him that *we* did not accept these pupils and that therefore the obligations are not *ours*. We have here the anomalous situation of having the selection of our students made by others while the duty of the successful completion of their education is thrust upon us. With this is attached the implied insistence of reconciling an academic or commercial education with non-academically minded students. The high schools as presently constituted cannot cope with or accept this responsibility. Let, then, the elementary school principals re-examine their practices in so far as they concern promotion and the granting of diplomas, and there will be less "squawking" on the part of high school teachers. Or let them coöperate with the high schools for a proper solution of the problem of the non-academically minded student and refrain from castigation for our evident despair upon the presentation to us, under present circumstances,

of an insoluble problem. Maintaining standards of achievement for all pupils in a certain type school does not mean ignoring the slow pupil in those or other type schools. Then, and then only, can more and better attention to his problems be given. And, in addition, a public school diploma will mean something to serious-minded academic students, a few of whom still remain, and to colleges to whom diplomas, no longer possessing their ancient virtues, have become meaningless, and so have been discarded as a standard for admission.

Mr. Moskowitz addresses his plea for the acceptance of Dean Briggs' philosophy to secondary school teachers. He seems to imply that elementary school teachers have already been converted to it. To denote that its mere acceptance will solve our problems is utterly elementary! Is Mr. Moskowitz naïve enough to believe that thousands of teachers so easily can, and willingly will, change their philosophy and procedures? And if a change of philosophy is so efficacious, then why is it that we secondary school teachers have these problems with us? Or is it barely possible that mere conversion to this philosophy with a concomitant change in procedures is not enough to eliminate a basic problem? Or is acceptance of a philosophy something more than the mere accretion of pedantic and stereotyped verbiage? A comparison of statistics on re-

tardation shows that while the rate of retardation in elementary schools has progressively become lower it has progressively become higher in the high schools. In the 38th Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools (1935-1936) we find:

	Overageness		Undergradedness	
	1924	1933	1924	1933
Elementary Schools	28.6	15.9	36.4	27.9
High Schools	15.9	18.5	27.5	32.2

What possibilities may be formulated from an evaluation of these figures?

1. That the elementary schools are successfully solving their problems—perhaps because of the adoption of "new" philosophies, practices and methods.
2. That the high schools not only are not solving their problems, but that they are becoming increasingly worse—perhaps because of failure to adopt the "new" philosophies, practices and methods.
3. That the elementary schools are getting a better type, more selective and more homogeneous group of pupils—for various reasons—than they had obtained before.
4. That the high schools are getting a worse type, less selective and less homogeneous group of students—for various reasons—than they had obtained before.
5. That the elementary schools, although not solving their problems at all, have adopted

- and are willing to propagate "new" philosophies and practices which *imply* their solution in the face of *no* solution.
6. That the high schools as presently constituted, unprepared and unable (though not unwilling) to cope with these recently peculiar problems and therefore not successfully solving them, refuse to accept the "new" philosophies and practices which only *imply* their solution in the face of *no* solution.

That the first possibility is not the true condition is quite obvious from the information furnished by the elementary schools themselves. The fact is that these problems exist both during and upon completion of the elementary school course—despite figures which show a solution. The third possibility is, to a degree, a definite fact in view of the raising of immigration barriers and the Americanization process. But the implications of the large reduction

in retardation shown between 1924 and 1933 are negated by the reverse tendency in the senior high schools. A better type pupil in the elementary schools must become a better type student in the high schools and the same lowering rate of retardation must soon show itself, all other factors being equal. The fact is that the fourth possibility mentioned above is definitely a condition that is confronting the high schools. Therefore we must conclude that the third possibility is not the explanation for the large reduction of retardation in the elementary schools.

There remain the second, fifth and sixth possibilities: Undoubtedly the high schools are not succeeding in eliminating their problems but not because of failure to adopt the "new" philosophies and practices. To say that that is the reason is to admit the correctness of the first possibility which has been shown not to be the situation. Therefore, I believe that the fifth and sixth possibilities, being complementary, are the true explanation of the situation under discussion.

Thus we feel that the adoption of a policy that refuses to confront the true causes of a problem cannot only fail to solve, but must necessarily aggravate it. It is for this reason that high school teachers complain and will continue to complain despite injunctive exhortations to "stop squawking about

misfits and go to work." And if elementary school principals insist on chiding modern language teachers to stop complaining about "their pupils' ignorance of grammar" and begin "to teach the grammar necessary for the understanding of the foreign language," may we equally insist that it is high time that the elementary schools did begin to teach the essentials of English grammar and see to it that their charges are able to gain information from the printed page—in short, to graduate pupils adequately prepared to do high school work? And if their hands are tied and they have no course but to send inadequately equipped pupils into the high schools, must they adopt defense mechanisms and attack high school teachers for complaining about this practice?

Mr. Moskowitz adds: "What is more important . . . is the development of a will on your part to drop your criticisms and attack your problem." What is the charge: that we lack a will to solve our problems? That we shirk attacking it? Did Mr. Moskowitz find this to be the case when he was a high school teacher and first assistant? Did he then beat his breast and cry "Mea culpa, mea culpa?" And has not the problem become more acute since 1930? How can he demand that we solve it when the proper solution is beyond our reach? Should he be surprised to find, then, that

we hesitate to accept a responsibility that is not ours?

Finally, we are counselled to become "teachers in the best sense of the term, (and) place in the background (our) interest in subject matter." I question the ability of anyone to become "teachers in the best sense of the term" if there is lacking a more than sufficient interest in, and knowledge of, subject matter. There is enough shoddiness in teaching already without adding to it by masquerading devices such as progressive philosophy; and for this only an inchoate understanding of progressivism in education is responsible.

My plea is for a more fundamental understanding of the causes

of failure, truancy and delinquency, and for a more realistic approach to their treatment. And for this task may I urge the sympathetic *coöperation* of Mr. Moskowitz and his sometime high school colleagues? The problem is so complex and so compelling that only the pooling of our combined resources may yield a solution. Recrimination is barren of results. If, however, the plan which he advocates is adopted without better justification than has yet been advanced, it cannot but be abortive and "will in all probability have the unfortunate effect of making chaos more chaotic."

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HYGIENE INSTRUCTION INTEGRATED WITH TRADE SUBJECTS IN VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS

Hygiene instruction integrated with trade subjects in the vocational high schools plays a very vital part in the school program. In this article are set forth the methods of procedure of hygiene as applied to many trades and the safety education plan which is provided for each shop subject.

Hygiene instruction is built around the boy's shop job. Prophylactic hygiene provides against the plumber's contact with lead; the sheet metal worker's exposure to poisonous shop fumes, gases, and dusts; the printer's intelligent

use of ink, lead and gas; and the auto mechanic's contact with grease as well as his exposure to carbon monoxide poisoning. In addition to the occupational hygiene and safety, the vocational student is taught the other branches of hygiene, namely, personal and home hygiene and personality studies.

Imagine yourself in the hygiene room with trade pupils and note the emphasis centering upon hygiene topics. It integrates the hygiene work with the shop job in a particular trade. After applying the shop hygiene to a trade,

you will then imagine yourself in the hygiene room with the students of sedentary trades. The shop hygiene instruction differs decidedly from the sedentary trade hygiene which will be discussed as a separate subject.

The printing department of the vocational high schools combines the different branches of the trade, namely, hand composition, linotype, monotype and press work. The hygiene correlation relates to the specific printing shop of the above branches.

The composing shop aims to teach the boys how properly to handle forms, set type, and care for type. Commercial forms are set by the boys.

HYGIENE INTEGRATION

Cautions for the hand compositor setting type; the socialized recitation centers on and stresses the job. The compositor who is handling type all the time should be careful to attend to any minor scratch or injury resulting from type. Teaching him the habit of being careful makes for prevention of accidents. In the same lesson, good posture for the respiratory tract is emphasized. Manikins are brought into play. The boys handle the organs of the detachable manikin of the thoracic cavity. First aid and occupational dangers in the hand composition shop are the salient features of hygiene instruction.

SEDENTARY OCCUPATIONS

The drafting trades are occu-

pations where the effects of assuming a strained posture while working over the drawing board are injurious to the abdominal and thoracic cavities, besides adding to the natural fatigue of the worker or draftsman.

Improper posture of the draftsman causes constant pressure upon the lungs due to the contracted chest. In some cases the chest bone and the ribs are driven in so far as to form a deep hollow. In addition to bronchial and lung diseases, draftsman or sedentary workers suffer from indigestion and constipation.

HYGIENE INTEGRATION

Hygiene instruction stresses constant studies on the detachable manikins of the abdominal and thoracic cavities. The organs from the manikins are handled by the students. The students are able to learn the proper and correct position of the organs when good posture is held. Body building and relaxation exercises are applied to prevent and to cure organic disorders. Eye hygiene through the use of the eye manikin and posters, plays for the draftsman a very important part in the hygiene room. The student workers receive instruction in first aid, such as cuts or scratches resulting from paper, thumbtacks, or drawing instruments. Personal hygiene as well as the sanitation of the room and the home, value of shop ventilation and shop temperature, and the

need of after school recreation are all important topics of learning in the vocational high school.

AUTOMOBILE MECHANICS

Auto mechanics are constantly working on repair jobs in the school automobile mechanics shop. Owing to the numerous automobile motors operating, carbon monoxide gases are freely escaping from the exhaust pipes. Hygiene integrated with this trade for the auto student mechanic is important.

HYGIENE INTEGRATION

The subject is first dealt with as an entity. Safety education in this type of occupation is essential for the student. Hand tools and machine dangers are essential and definite subjects for discussion and instruction. As a result of exposure to toxic agents, diseases may be acute or chronic and vary in intensity and duration from the acute and fatal attacks of asphyxia caused by suffocating gases, to the slow insidious forms of industrial tuberculosis.

This form of knowledge is not given in a way to frighten the student, but rather to make him feel happy to be able to understand conditions which are his life problems. The content in this field covers the physiological changes which occur in the body under carbon monoxide exposure and the steps of these changes; the actual tissue damage and symp-

toms; sources of carbon monoxide hazards in industry; control of different types; medical control; resuscitation methods and after-care treatment of carbon monoxide victims. They are decidedly life saving measures.

SAFETY EDUCATION

Safety education is given in close conformity with the Stokes Law of 1937. This program of safety education covers the various fields; namely, Highway and Traffic Safety, Home Safety, Industrial and Occupational Safety, Recreational Safety, and School Safety. The need for instruction in safety habits for health protection has long been recognized and instituted. Since the incorporation of safety education both in the shop and in the hygiene classroom, there have been decided decreases in accidents in the school shops.

Objective material is used to demonstrate machine dangers and accidents in the shops and in the drawing rooms. Safety machine devices are thoroughly studied. Topics such as Occupational Dangers, Safety, the First Consideration, Instrument Dangers, Shop Tools and Material Dangers, Home, School, and Recreational Safety are discussed by the trade students in socialized recitations. Daily life experiences are contributed by the young industrial workers.

The student workers elect fore-

men. It is the duty of the student foremen to inspect the shop, examine tools, machinery motors and belting. During the hygiene recitation period, shop safety committees render reports on their experiences and conclude with some precautionary measures for avoiding accidents in the shop. Definite suggestions for integration of safety with a specific trade develops safety habits in the students.

Acting upon the suggestion of Dr. Harold G. Campbell, Superintendent of Schools, Mr. Morris E. Siegel, Director of Evening and Vocational High Schools, introduced a uniform safety education plan. This plan provides a complete set of mimeographed instructions and precautionary measures to be studied by the student at the beginning of his training period in the shop, covering the occupational dangers and hazards. This program of safety education is carried on in the student's own shop. The plan includes demonstrations of hazards and accident prevention by the teacher; a statement signed by the student certifying that he has been taught and had these instructions demonstrated to him, and that he has given evidence of his ability to handle tools and equipment in a safe manner. Uniform objective tests must be passed 100% by the student on his trade subject before he is permitted to use tools, machines, instruments, and apparatus.

The purpose of this safety plan is to make the students safety-minded and to safeguard him from possible injury. It also keeps the student familiar with the industrial and occupational hazards of the trade into which he eventually will enter. In conclusion, the shop teachers are provided with a uniform and definite safety education plan and with teaching material. It makes them responsible for carrying out the program.

Below is a lesson plan on shop ventilation. It may be applied generally to almost any type of a shop.

SHOP VENTILATION

I. To develop the proper habits, attitudes, and knowledges through

1. An understanding of keeping free from occupational diseases;
2. Education of the student worker in care and caution to be exercised when exposed to occupational diseases.
3. Emphasizing procedures and skills with which to meet daily situations intelligently.
4. Instructing the student in the daily causes of occupational diseases due to poor shop ventilation and the values of safe ventilating devices.

II. Preparation:

1. Need for practical safety habits.

2. Review of earlier lessons dealing with safety education.
3. Review of the different names and types of ventilating systems.
4. Pupil experiences of accidents (observed, heard of, or actually experienced).
5. Need of fresh air in the shops.
6. Inspection of ventilation in the different shops.
7. Need for observing and recording temperature.
8. Experimental apparatus.

III. Presentation (content):

Shop ventilation.

1. Air Currents in Hoods: There are three methods practiced in removing dust, fumes, and gases generated in the process of manufacturing, namely, downward, lateral, and upward systems.
 - a. Explanation and description of the three systems.
 - b. Placement of hoods.
2. Other methods of removing dusts, fumes, and gases.
 - a. Natural methods.
 - b. Mechanical means.
3. Carbon Monoxide Dangers in Industry.
 - a. Preventive measures.
 - b. First aid.
4. Tuberculosis and Dusts.
 - a. Other lung diseases of different trades.

- b. Care as a preventive measure.
- c. Prevention of injurious dusts.
- d. Prevention of dust formation.

IV. Comparisons:

1. Safety similarities in the school shops, home, public and private garages, and industrial establishments.
2. Safety procedures and statistical studies of different industries with relation to occupational diseases, mortality due to poorly ventilated shops and homes.
3. Study of comparisons of ventilating systems in school shops and local industrial establishments.

V. Generalization:

1. To establish the proper habits, attitudes, and understanding of health and safety in shops exposing workers to poisonous gases, fumes and dust.
2. Hazards in the industrial shops, proper ventilating systems, and precautionary rules and regulations.

VI. Application (motivate assignment by thought-provoking questions):

1. Statistical data on dusty trades; also on poisonous lead and fumes in industries.

2. Reading from Department of Labor reports.
3. Reports from shop committees.
4. Carbon monoxide in garages.
5. Demonstrations.
6. Self-evaluation of literature.
7. Scrapbook and poster studies; moving pictures.
8. Socialized recitation.
9. The assignments, recitation, questions, etc., should be definite and simple.

VII. Conclusions:

1. It is healthful to establish the habit of good safety procedures in good shop ventilation.
2. Carelessness may cause loss of life or irreparable organic diseases.
3. It pays to be careful. An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure.
4. Air must be kept moving. The temperature should be kept at about 68 degrees.
5. Fresh air contains a supply of oxygen and is necessary to help the oxidation of food to produce work. It definitely contributes to occupational efficiency.

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moving Dusts, Fumes, and Gases. Bulletin No. 82.

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AN EXPERIMENT IN GUIDANCE AT THE GROVER CLEVELAND HIGH SCHOOL*

Organization and Operation:

On Wednesday, February 27th, 1935, the first meeting of a general committee of twelve members of our faculty was held for the purpose of general discussion and organization of the aims of group guidance program in Senior High Schools.

The committee was organized into three sub-committees and to each of these there was assigned the specific study of one of the three major phases of the field, for example—one committee on *Personal Social Problems*; another committee on *Personal Economic Problems* and a third committee on *Personal (Measurement) Problems*.

At each of the subsequent three meetings—March, April and May—one of the sub-committees made a report and submitted recommendations in one particular field.

In June, 1935 as a result of intensive study, the committee was in a position to recommend that a guidance experiment be made during the Fall Term beginning September, 1935. Accordingly, outlines and forms of hypoteti-

* It is the policy of HIGH POINTS to present different points of view on different topics; publication of an article does not necessarily mean that it is endorsed by the editors.—EDITOR.

cal cases were drawn and presented by the Chairman of the General Committee to a conference of Heads of Departments on September 20, 1935 with the suggestion that volunteers be sought to make tests with groups of pupils in Grover Cleveland High School. At a second conference of Heads of Departments, the Committee gave a demonstration of the plan, using the Heads of Departments as a group to be tested. Immediately following these conferences volunteers were set to work on the project and by this plan which was in force during the latter part of the term September 1935-January 1936 most satisfactory findings were reported.

On the basis of this experience, a complete Guidance (Group) program involving every pupil was put into operation Wednesday morning, first period, February 5th, 1936. The Home Room Group Guidance period is programmed for every Wednesday, First Period. Since this is the same time as the school assembly and since only one-third (1/3) of the school school may be accommodated in Assembly Hall at a time, the remaining two-thirds (2/3) of the student body is in session engaged in the Home Room Program. For example,

while Home Room pupils of the first floor are in assembly all pupils in all other rooms on second and third floors are in Home Room conference.

The philosophy underlying this program may most briefly be expressed as a shift in educational emphasis under the following major sub-divisions:

I. *Nature of the Home Room*

From the word "Home" comes the dominant tone which should pervade the classroom. Home first of all is a place where people are interested in us, in our school progress, but far more so in our hobbies, our health, and social activities, our friends in relation to us.

In the Home Room will be found several groups:

1. The brilliant, coöperative, dependable.
2. The brilliant, and uncoöperative (spoiled).
3. The slow, dependable, and coöperative.
4. The slow, undependable and uncoöperative.

Each of these groups will require a different method of approach but the teacher should remember that groups of even very different children, when placed together and subjected to the same influences and experiences, tend to become in a sense unified and develop very marked group traits. This is what the children call "class spirit."

The Home Room teacher, therefore, is the basic individual in any program of guidance and in any ordinary problem of mental hygiene. The Home Room teacher may encourage his children to face life squarely. If he satisfies their impulse to do things and sets the stage for what he wants, he may inspire them to show their own initiative and to coöperate in helping each other. He makes the Home Room the laboratory for the exercise of those character traits and those activities which make for civic efficiency.

II. In other words, the *Purposes of the Home Room* are twofold:

A. *To Develop Desirable Pupil-Teacher Relationships.*

The Home Room is one substitute offered for the lost teacher-pupil equation.

B. *To Guide the Pupil.*

It is commonly recognized that guidance in all of its aspects is needed more by the pupil during his senior high school years than at any other time during his life; for example

1. *Health Guidance:* The main division of the whole field of guidance of the pupil concerns his physical well-being. Informally, the home room can center attention on many phases

of health in a non-lesson-getting and non-sermon-making way that will bring a pleasant and interested response from the home room members.

2. *Personality Guidance:* Consider for a moment the many phases of education or improvement that the child must go through before he can be considered fit to associate with his fellows. He must be educated in proper ideals and habits in such matters as dress and grooming, voice and conversation, and utilization of his time and energy, thrift of a number of different kinds, in his relations with his home, friends and associates as well as in a host of individual problems.

C. *Educational Guidance:* Acquainting the pupil with the main purposes and methods of education is an important function of any school; and helping him to study his own characteristics in the interest of their proper capitalization as well as to have him recognize and accept his responsibility for his own progress is equally important.

D. *Social Guidance:* There is also a demand that the school assume more responsibility for educating the pupil socially so that he can take his place easily and without embarrassment in a society which has well-established social patterns and tradi-

tions. He must be taught the necessity of proper relationships with duly constituted authority as well as proper relationships with his fellows. Manners and courtesy in the broad sense as well as in the narrow is the main concern of this phase of education.

E. *Moral Guidance:* To develop Desirable Ideals and Habits of Citizenship—Individual and Group Knowledges, Ideals, and Attitudes. In considering good citizenship we usually mention such traits or elements of character as loyalty, fair play, honesty, tolerance, initiative, dependability, good sportmanship, coöperation, service, trustworthiness, resourcefulness, leadership and followership.

F. *Recreational Guidance:* The demand for education and better ways of spending leisure time is well-known and appreciated by all teachers. As man's working day becomes shorter, this free time increases; and as the methods of employing this leisure time multiply and diversify, a corresponding sense of values must be developed so that this time will be better used.

G. *Vocational Guidance:* Where formerly the common practice in school was to place this enormous responsibility largely in the hands of one guidance

officer, the trend now is in the general direction of decentralizing this type of guidance. The Home Room teacher, *because of his personal contact with the Home Room members, knows them better than any Vocational Guidance Officer.*

In accordance with the above mentioned aims and objectives, we formulated a four year course of Study in Group Guidance as indicated below:

III. Outline of Procedure of the Four Year Plan—Group Guidance

A. The Major Phases, namely

1. Personal-Social Problems
2. Economic-Social Problems
3. Educational-Social Problems (individual differences)

B. Place in Curriculum—Course of Study

1. School Adjustment Problems—1st Year
 - (a) Discovery—1st Term
 - (b) Adaptation—2nd Term
2. Home Adjustment Problems—2nd Year
 - (a) Reorientation — 3rd Term
 - (b) Specialization — 4th Term
3. Vocational Adjustment Problems—3rd Year
 - (a) Socialization — 5th Term
 - (b) Personal Efficiency — 6th Term
4. Educational Adjustment Problems—4th Year

- (a) Evaluation—7th Term
 - (b) Integration—8th Term
- (Business Ethics, college courses, etc.)

III-A The following series of steps of procedure have definitely facilitated progress:

Mechanics of the organization of the Group Guidance period

1. At 8:36, the case will be presented and the discussion started. Each speaker to be allowed 1½–2 minutes (limit)—the assumption is that Every Pupil shall speak during the discussion of the case. *Note:* Time shall be called by the leader.

2. Pupils shall rise and address the leader, chosen from the class by the class.

Note: Parliamentary rules to govern the discussion

3. Each case shall occupy the class not more than three periods.

4. Assignment—a case of similar value.

5. To-days case: Title and Objectives on board at right.

(*Note:* These should always be written on the board.)

6. When first question at issue is offered, the teacher will retire to side of room in favor of leader.
7. Summary by teacher.

Note: To develop "Sense of proportion."

III-B Example of Approach to Student Guidance Conference Period:

A question rose among pupils—namely, "Is homework really essential in high school?"

It is Tuesday afternoon: the pupils ask if they may discuss the question today; teacher suggests that, since the time is short today, Tuesday, he would be glad to hear them discuss it tomorrow (Wednesday) when we will have a longer period. In other words, the period was "eased in" quietly as it should be and, as a result, the discussion was natural, sincere and earnest and finally concluded with a vote in favor of homework and with the request from the pupils for more of the same kind of period.

Note: It is advised by the General Committee that a similar method be employed in all group guidance periods as being one of the best ways of approaching the discussion of any of the hundreds of possible cases or situations that are constantly arising.

Suggestions to Teachers

1. Under the "case method" it is essential to present specific cases always hypothetically, never personally.
2. Whenever possible, anticipate the discussion period as in the above example with similar leads.

3. Stress every tactful means to produce naturalness in the guidance period.
4. Avoid making specific assignment—either speakers or topics—for the period.
5. Make spontaneity the key element of the period.
6. Encourage extemporaneous speaking under parliamentary control at all meetings.

III-C Suggested Topics for Discussion in Home Room

1. Explain the home room period and its organization. Select temporary officers; program committee to help get members for discussion. *Topic:* Conduct in the cafeteria.
2. Select permanent officers. *Topic:* Conduct in the auditorium and theatre. Rights of all to enjoy; courtesy to the performers or speakers.
3. *Topic:* The General Organization; what it is; what it does; how money is spent; for what?
4. "How to Study" Conduct in study hall; organization of auditorium study hall. Helping those needing help.
5. "Conduct in Public" On transportation systems, busses, street, at games. Sportmanship.
6. School Traditions: Code Different; Arista Soul; scholarship, honor roll; service.
7. School Regulations; necessity for them.

8. "Getting along at home."
9. "Saving for a career." Thrift.
10. "Appropriate dress and social behavior."
11. "What shall I be?"
12. "Am I choosing my courses correctly?" Have I the necessary subjects? Sequences? Average? Character? Rating? Points?
13. "Should I go to college?" What colleges require; whither they lead.
14. "Am I developing essential traits of character?"
15. "How shall I spend my leisure?" Amusements, hobbies, recreations.
16. "Am I forming real friendships?"
17. "Do I understand the ethics of business and professional life?"

At the present time, we are developing a syllabus in Group Guidance, basing our conclusions on our experience in the current experiment. The procedure employed throughout the test has been the Case Method.

At the end of the first year of experimenting we are able to report many points of advantage to both teachers and students in Grover Cleveland High School. The Chief value of the Home Room Discussion Period is measured by the spontaneous responses of the group, as indicated by the pupil officers in the monthly reports. (See attached form.)

A survey of these monthly reports reveals the fact that in Item 3 (the number of participants) the numbers have increased from 25% to 93% of class membership participating during the year and in Item 8 the answers indicate increase in affirmative responses from 75% of all classes up to 95%. Another encouraging sign is shown with regard to Item 10; in that case many classes have, through their secretary, written supplementary reports and this without solicitation or hint from any source, a splendid demonstration of the intensity of interest in this feature of the school program.

Further evidence of value is found in the diversification of topics discussed as shown in the classified list that follows:

Athletics

Dropping of sports on failure of 2 subjects

Auditorium

Conduct

Boatride

Why

Cafeteria

Food tax

Manners

Coed tables

Cafeteria

Education

Compulsory education to 17 yrs.

Purpose of education

Co-education

Compulsory subjects

Value of H. S. education in later life

General
Smoking
Clubs
Vacations
Current events
War
Junior Prom
Social Behavior
High School Regulations
Cleveland Code
Cutting
Assembly Programs
School traditions
Double sessions

General Organization
Service Squad
Student Court

Monthly Report—Form I *Home Room—Group Guidance*

First Term	()
Second Term	()
Third Term	()
Fourth Term	()
Fifth Term	()
Sixth Term	()
Seventh Term	()
Eighth Term	()

(Please indicate grade by "x")

Teacher..... Month..... Room.....

1. Number of Discussion Periods.....
2. Titles of Topics Discussed
3. Number of participants
4. Number of minutes (average) for each?.....
5. Is participation confined to a few?.....
6. Why?
7. How should the number of participants be increased?.....
8. Do you like these discussions?.....
9. Why?
10. COMMENT:

Approved:

Home Room Leader

Teacher

High School Subjects
Questions on exams never had
Types of courses offered
Need of homework
Choice of subjects

Student Secretary

Hobbies
Types
Values
Home Problems
Conditions

Leisure

Evening recreation

Wise choice

Types

Study

How to study

Necessity for study

Vocations

Ethics in business

Types of professions

Requirements for profession

Choice of courses

Professions for women

Specialization

There follow three excellent examples of typical procedure in the conduct of the Group Guidance Period as reported by Mr. Paul G. Ryan of the Social Science Department at Grover Cleveland High School.

A. On Tuesday during the 8th period class, a pupil asked if homework assignments were necessary. Thinking of the next day's guidance period, I explained to the pupil and class that this period was short but that on the next day the period would be much longer, being an assembly period. Therefore, I asked the class whether they would care to carry over the question to the next day and that I would allow part of the period to be given over to a discussion, if they wished it that way. The class gladly assented to the idea.

The next day when the 8:36 A.M. bell rang, I gave over, as promised the day before, the remainder of the period for discus-

sion of the problem, "Are homework assignments really essential?" Much discussion took place, at first with a rather humorous desire to abolish homework, but as the discussion progressed there developed a serious and interesting consideration of all phases of the matter of assignments. A vote was asked for and the class went 100% for assignments, arguing that assigned homework was essential to the successful completion of high school courses. It was pointed out that properly assigned lessons helped in the preparation for Regents examinations. Also that all the work of any course could not be possibly covered during the class period. That the training pupils get in the preparation of lessons is in itself of value to them. All these points were brought out by the pupils themselves without the necessity of my entering into the discussions.

As the period closed, the pupils brought up the question of "over assigning" by some teachers. They pointed out that some teachers assign spasmodically — 2 hours work one night and none another. Since the period was now about over, some pupils asked me if they could carry over to next Wednesday the question of "how much work should be assigned?" I gladly assented as this was just the way I wished the guidance work to carry over to the next Guidance period.

B. *Second Meeting:* Robert Con-

nelly was selected by the class as chairman and he immediately introduced for the discussion the problem of "how much homework should a teacher expect a pupil to do." Many concrete instances of "over assigning" were given. Some pupils testified that assignments of 2 and 3 hours' length in one subject alone were given, however, not regularly but spasmodically. After much changing of opinions, the class finally voted that it was not generally too severe a task to accomplish from 30 to 40 minutes' homework in each subject, assuming that each pupil carried 3 or 4 majors. However, they agreed that assignments requiring more than 40 minutes' home preparation should not be given. A question arose as to how the teacher might know how long it takes a particular pupil to finish his assignment at home. They voted that it takes some pupils much longer to do their homework than others. It was then suggested that pupils who couldn't do the work in the assigned time, providing they gave themselves a fair trial, go directly to their teachers and tell them courteously but frankly about it.

C. *Third Meeting:* In discussing the World War during the regular History period, a pupil pointed out that more Americans were killed and injured severely in one year now than during the time of our participation in the World War. Another pupil asked

if something couldn't be done about this great loss of life. I asked the class if they would like to discuss later in the period (to the teacher officially—the regular guidance period) the ways and means of reducing the great loss of life and number of accidents. Later pupils suggested how they could improve conditions by crossing at crossings, looking both ways before crossing a street, driving carefully (some claimed to have a license to drive). They suggested that the Art Department of this school conduct a drive against "carelessness". I happened to have a film from the police department on "safety" and mentioning the fact caused a request from the class to project this picture. The picture offered "courtesy" and "carefulness" as remedies.

Viewed in its entirety, we find that our year's work in Group Guidance experimentation has helped us to solve many of our problems and has at the same time opened up new channels of approach to this highly important factor—clear thinking and expression of thought—in modern education. As a result of the free and frank discussion of so many topics and from so many angles we note a clearer understanding and therefore a much more uniform compliance with and cooperation in all phases of school and home regulations and general so-

cial behavior among the students of this school.

And finally we find a few developments growing out of this guidance program.

- I. The organization of the complete student register into "occupational choice" groups.
- II. Formulation of round-table discussions within these groups. These round-table discussion groups were made up of the occupationally organized groups in Accounting, Commercial Art and Medicine and held after school for no longer than thirty minutes and led by experts in these respective fields. The Accounting group discussion had as its leader the President of one of the leading schools of Accountancy in the country; the Commercial Art group leader was

the Art Director of one of our best magazines and three medical doctors presided over the group of students interested in medicine.

Those interested in Civil Service have organized a Civil Service Study Group and have visited the Civil Service Commission by appointment, accompanied by one of the faculty of the school and as in the case of the groups named above gained much valuable information regarding their chosen field of work and much material for discussion in the coming Home Room periods. Other round-table discussion sessions were arranged for the following term, that of the spring of 1937.

WM. R. HARPER,
Dean of Boys.

Chairman,
Committee on Group Guidance,
Grover Cleveland High School.

MY CLASS STRUGGLE

For along time now, my pedagogic career has been thwarted, if not dwarfed, by several frustrations. As psychology recommends a purging of these by free discussion, I shall openly confess what it is that has been tormenting me.

First, dear Board of Education, I suffer from a lack of closet space. What to me are marble edifices and stone facades when my own room is cramped? At

night I dream of vast rooms lined with shelves to hold all the books I should like to show to my students only to find myself in the morning entering a room holding one teacher's locker where my coat must be squeezed in among the many books I crowd into it.

Sometimes I long to bring my own books to school to share with my students, but there is always the danger of losing them because

there is no place to keep them. The loss or mishandling of books would drive me to greater melancholia.

"For him was levere have at his beddes heed
Twenty bokes, clad in black or reed

Of Aristotle and his philosophye
Than robes riche, or fithele, or gay santyre."

That is how Chancer's clerk of Oxenford felt about it, and that's how I feel about it. Hence my plea for rooms that foster the scholarly life.

This closetmania weakens and resolves itself into another frustration during the time that I teach a Shakesperean play. The longer I teach Shakespere the more I am convinced that a visual presentation should precede the reading. It has often puzzled me to understand why the uncouth groundlings, the uncultured apprentices and flower vendors of the seventeenth century could comprehend our foremost dramatist more readily than our soi-disant educated high school students. The answer is, of course, that the groundlings *saw* the plays in all their tragedy and humor, while our students *read* the plays in all their dismal ignorance.

Why can't an English teacher, faced with this difficulty, avail herself of a permanent free professional dramatic group—WPA or other unit—at need? Does a medical school attempt to teach anatomy without cadavers, or an

art school teach drawing without models? Aren't we really embalming the drama by our present method of teaching it? With the exception of the prolix rather than dramatic Shaw, I can think of no dramatist who would rather have his plays read than acted.

All the problems we encounter in Shakespeare are not inherent in the plays but in our presentation. Students who see the plays performed rarely suffer from the confusion of idiom those encounter who only read them. Too much time now must be spent on content and plot instead of characterization and philosophy. A dramatic group would enhance the teaching of plays and help rid me of another frustration.

If, dear Santa Claus and dear Board of Education, you are still listening, I should also like a radio and phonograph in my classroom. There is nothing more stimulating toward a vital discussion period than hearing a good address rather than seeing one in print. If Mr. Burke has been slaughtered by endless generations of schoolboys, it is that addresses were meant to be heard with all their emotional appeal that a radio broadcast or phonographic transcription could convey—an appeal which the cold print extinguishes too effectively. The logical medium of preserving argumentation or forensic literature is the human record rather than cold type. If students have mutilated the glori-

ous accents of Milton and Keats in their vapid sing-song recitation of them, it is that they often lack good models. What is better than the hearing of a fine actor reciting our master pieces on a record?

Assuming that you are still there, I should like a complete motion picture outfit and reels for the teaching of spelling, punctuation and grammar. As spelling is particularly a matter of visual rather than auditory memory, I see no better means of impressing the "demons" on students' minds than through the use of the screen. As for grammar, what a delightful subject it can become on the screen, instead of the deadly thing it is in the book. Have you considered the possibilities of comedy in literally portraying such sentences as "There is a horse ploughing with one eye" (a kind of quadruped Polyphemus or Cyclops)?; or "If fresh milk does not seem to agree with the child, boil it"? This film might portray the difficulty the writer of the sentence got into with the law and the Children's Aid Society.

There is nothing more vivid than the dramatic method of pointing an error. As proof of this we know that as early as medieval times the clergy availed themselves of the drama to teach the layman the evils of sin and the blessings of religion. Thus evolved the miracle, mystery and morality plays. The vivid concepts

of heaven and hell that these medieval plays portrayed, not only exerted a powerful hold on the minds and morals of the populace, but also influenced the imagery of writers as late as Milton. Why can't we emulate the clever pedagogy of the clergy and use the drama, not to picture the terrors of a moral hell, but of an ungrammatical one?

A modern morality play in which the Seven Deadly Sins might be "Ain't," "You was," etc. might more effectively teach the concept of good English than any textbook, because, in a manner of speaking, we have reverted to the mass ignorance of the medieval ages in the matter of reading. Very few read or care to read. They yield to the easier method of gaining information through pictures. Hence the popularity of tabloids. If we harnessed this inertia as the medieval clergy did, we might achieve an acquaintance with the amenities of grammar through the screen as they did with the fundamentals of religion through the living drama. I can envision students clamoring for a period in grammar—a thing most of us see now only in our deluding dreams.

Sometimes those dreams are wrecked by nightmares. I think I am in a prison where everything is nailed down. I know the prototype in real life. It's my classroom where all the seats are nailed to the floor. How can you teach

"creative thought" or "creative composition" to 35 or 40 souls that are chained to the ground? How I long sometimes to be able to shove those seats around in a semi-circle, to shove my desk out the door, to seat myself in with that group and just discuss the things we plan to write. Instead, I find myself standing in front of a desk facing an assorted mass of riveted humanity. Is it any wonder I dream of jails?

Talking of "creative writing," I'd like to receive one really good essay or story or poem as a result of my assignments in composition. Aside from the immortal couplet I once received from a freshman in an effusion entitled "A Faded Romance" ending:

"He kissed her black eyes, her red lips, her white throat,
She sighed, she knew tomorrow she would be the goat"

I have never yet received any opus worth loss of sleep.

Despite my invitation to students to unexplored realms, pupils are morbidly conservative. They persist in writing on "The School I Like Best," as witness one terse classic I received after I had praised the virtues of condensation: "As we all know, our school is one of the finest, nicest and up-to-date schools you could possibly hope to get anywhere. The teachers are O.K. and so are the pupils. The systems in this school are pretty good and better than in others."

Another popular topic is "My Favorite Scene," containing descriptions that, like Coleridge's star in the crescent moon, defy all the laws of nature. Here is an elaborate flight of an urban child's imagination aroused by a country scene he has never witnessed:

"The lights were low, the beautiful sun left an orange background, the moon was high in the sky and the sky was clear. The summer flowers were in full bloom and the distinct hissing of the bees, flies, (one is tempted to edit this 'fleas') and mosquitos could be heard. The owl in the tree was singing us one of his sweet songs. Tranquility reigned in this country forest, peace and quietness were its fellow helpers."

This would be quite in the Lewis Carroll manner if the boy who wrote it hadn't meant it seriously.

Alas for us who try to grind out little Walter Peters! Even Latin teachers are more fortunate than we in breaking the boredom of bathos. Wasn't it in a Latin class that the schoolboy who forgot his pony began, "All Gaul is divided into three parts: wine, women and song?" But we must go on with the insufferable tedium of themes that grow more vacuous with the years. Please Santa, won't you occasionally throw in an embryo Keats or miniature Emerson to retard my chronic frustration?

There is something else bother-

ing that diseased mind of mine. I'd like to see the day when the school building will be only one in a group of buildings catering to the community. An even more important building than the school house would be the Community House, a settlement house really that would take care of all extra-curricular activities: clubs, publications, dramatics, choral singing, etc., that are now tacked on to an already over-worked teacher. Extra-curricular activities are important and to some students are the only compensation for coming to school; but a teacher, after conscientiously instructing five classes, marking over one hundred papers, correcting an equal number of compositions, keeping records, advising students after class and planning lessons, cannot feel spry enough to meet a club or undertake any other activity which to students is a means of relaxation or a vent for extra energy but to the teacher is just another drain upon her nervous resources.

A community house staffed with competent leaders qualified in their several fields could more adequately and competently supervise the leisure time activities of students than their academically-minded and trained teachers who would function in the school house.

Before I retire, I should also like to see, if not prepare, the perfect examination paper. After having drawn up many examina-

tions, I find that the art is elusive and hard to master. It is strange how the most obvious question begets the most esoteric interpretation by students. You put limits, safeguards, lifebuoys around, but the result is always the same—students write what they think you ought to ask, not what you actually demanded of them. A few years of this, and with J. B. Priestley you are tempted to let it go with the blanket question:

"O cuckoo! shall I call thee bird, Or but a wandering voice?"

State the alternative preferred,

Give reasons for your choice."

According to Boswell, the blunt, ursine Dr. Johnson was heard to warn a young man who had asked him whether to marry: "I would advise no man to marry, Sir, who is not likely to propagate understanding."

Apparently few men think themselves deficient in this respect for after a session of marking papers, I feel I'm the victim of progeny whose ancestors might have profited by the boorish Doctor's counsel. But all is not dullness. Sometimes I am rewarded by literary criticism of this sort: "Ozymandias, the statue, was justified in being crumbled in the dessert"; or distorted quotations, as this: "What hempen home-runs have we swaggering here" for "home-spuns" by a youngster who was reading *A Midsummer Night's Dream* during the baseball season;

or social criticism of this type: "In the Odyssey's time a hero had to have many qualifications. He had to be good in swimming, running, dancing, jumping, discus throwing, and also had to be a very big liar. In modern times, lying is recognized as bad manners. If a man lies, we call him a liar and not a hero." Maybe I was meant to be a preacher, not a teacher.

But if I can't achieve the perfect examination paper, there is one more desire I hope to fulfill before I die. I should like to receive from a student one good original excuse for homework not done. There comes a time when the dread words, "I didn't do my homework" uttered by a student become a challenge to the teacher. The only amelioration for such an occurrence is the excuse that follows this omission. This usually is of the vintage of sick or dying grandmothers, unworkable alarm clocks or provokingly misplaced school books.

What a wealth of opportunity is offered here to the imaginative. But students are traditionally hidebound. Most content themselves with the non-committal "No Excuse," thus cutting the ground from under your feet; or simply evade the issue by shrugging their shoulders. Would Til Eulenspiegel or Baron Munchausen have met the problem in this manner? What masterpieces of improvisation would have been forthcoming at such a crisis!

Only two of my students ever approached a high level of attainment in this respect. One, innocently enough, achieved an effect she never intended. The first note she wrote asking to be excused from her lessons, stated that the reason for her absence was that she had a "nimic." The next day, the same student brought a note stating that she was going to the hospital for "the nimic." If you are puzzled, dear reader, so was the entire faculty, but the "nimic" upon investigation proved to be "anaemic," and the student was excused with corrections.

The other, a boy, asked to be excused from taking a test on a memory selection. He broke down after writing the first ten lines of the "to be or not to be" speech in *Hamlet*. He wound up the test with this note: "I am sorry. I studied and know perfectly all the speeches from *Hamlet*. I learned them in about 3 to 4 hours. But I learned them last week and did not review for the test. If you think that I can remember for a week, you are mistaken. I have a good brain, but even I can't do that. I suppose I will get a bad mark this term but the strain of trying to straighten out some lines out of all the jumbled phrases in my brain, has made me pretty mad."

Here we have both the humility and arrogance that characterize genius; and such frank avowal of genius merits recognition. Here we have none of your mediocre,

pedestrian shirking as to the blame, but an honest confession rarely encountered in these days of racketeering. It takes courage to believe in one's own genius and integrity in these days of standardization.

But I still feel that I have not yet read the perfect excuse—one that an older teacher who taught in an evening school during the prohibition era received from a frank youth. It read:

"Please excuse me for being absent last night. I had to stay home to help my father make wine."

Is it any wonder, then, that teachers live long? Students are Thomas Jefferson High School.

so imperfect. As a consequence, there is always the happy anticipation of finding the perfect answer, the perfect composition, the perfect excuse. But if we don't, what matter? The journey has been pleasant, and the company most entertaining. In a world of war, disease, poverty and crime, their naivete and literalness are a joyous relief; and though we know better, we break down (like the sentimental fool we are) to whisper:

"God bless you all, my children."

SARAH THORWALD STIEGLITZ.

HIGH POINTS

SUBJECTING THE NOVEL TO SOCRATIC SCRUTINY

This article is dedicated to the assumption that students in the third year are prone to consider a novel as a series of immutable general laws not to be questioned and containing no possible link with their immediate environment. The author is thought of as a man of perplexity and legerdemain who knocks vainly for admittance into the lives of these too too physical creatures. It would seem, then, that redefinition of the novel in terms of concrete experience is essential if the student is not to relegate it to that vast limbo of "deep" but unread books. How-

ever delightful the "grandeur of generality," Irving Babbitt has pointed out that imagination and conduct can only be controlled if general terms are submitted to socratic scrutiny or the exposition of an idea in terms of objective truth.

Undoubtedly, a generalization accepted most glibly today is that there has been a movement to the West and that the pioneering spirit has become part of our heritage. It seemed wise to submit this notion to the "socratic scrutiny" of a normal fifth term class by means of a four week project called "The March to the West: Contributions of Immigrants

to our Civilization." Three immediate purposes guided the students in that period of time: (1) Establishment of criteria and central cores for discussion and re-living of selected portions of pioneer existence in the latter part of the nineteenth century. (3) Application of these criteria and imaginative qualities to novels and certain segments of contemporary life.

With these triple purposes in mind, we proceeded with an intensive reading of Rolvaag's *Giants In the Earth*, which was sufficient unto itself to raise problems and establish criteria for investigation. The students reacted keenly to the silent march of the Norwegian immigrants toward the Pacific. The central cores quickly grouped themselves: The romantic and realistic approach toward the Westward movement, the relentless conflict between man and nature, the bleakness and loneliness of the west, the inadequate means of transportation, the hunger for land, the influence of the soil upon character, the transformation in the customs of the immigrants. The validity of these points was established by ample reference to the novel and general classrooms discussion.

By this time the second stage of our project had been reached, at which point the students clarified and imaginatively re-lived these problems. About thirty-five fields

of research were listed on mimeographed work sheets with the understanding that the student was to select one voluntarily and make this his special province of endeavor, e.g. Passing of the Frontier, Songs of the Old West, Customs of the Pioneers, Methods of Agriculture, Organization of Pioneer Society, Invasion of the West by Scandinavians, etc. The way was fraught with doubts and torments lest we encroach upon the domain of the history teacher. Happily enough, we side-stepped the "difficulty" when the students synthesized this research and their imaginative faculties by writing and speaking as if they were undergoing the actual problems. Thus, the emphasis was still on creative work and not just on the exhuming of facts.

The bibliography offered more than its quota of turmoil. Before listing books and magazines on our work sheets we had long and earnest huddles with the History, Chemistry, Music departments, and the school librarians. It became evident that the ways of research were foreign to the students. The school librarian solved the *cul de sac* by coaching the students in the use of reference materials pertinent to their problems. In the course of digging up material and re-creating it in artistic form, the students contacted exciting sources of information. Some wrote to the Norwegian, Danish, and Swedish Consuls in New York, asking for

interviews (a fine opportunity to stir interest in letter-writing by anticipating the recipient) which were integrated in their reports. Persuasive letters caused State Historical Societies, Chamber of Commerce, Railroad Lines, and Governmental Bureaus to cull their files for our needs.

The time for "cashing in" on this effort had arrived. The validity of certain human problems had been determined, these problems were re-lived imaginatively yet concretely—now, these new-found tools could be applied to other novels. We drew up a list of pertinent readings concentrated around Willa Cather, Rolvaag, Edna Ferber, Hamsun, Ellen Glasgow, Hamlin Garland, Ja Bojer, and Pearl Buck. The class understood that they were to discuss the novels selected in terms of the background that had been re-created through the research and class discussion. The relation between the novel and the frontier was always apparent; realism and romanticism were packed with more than general meaning; every good novel was seen to have roots in a definite, accurate milieu; the fascination of human beings waging battles against odds was ever present.

When the results poured in, they more than compensated for weeks of planning. A few sentences picked casually from the written discussions indicate how sympathetically the students had entered into the material: "I found

'As the Earth Turns' to be authentic in its background and characters. The author described life on the farm as secluded, difficult and realistic, and she proves this by introducing the Shaw family." "Willa Cather knows historical background quite well. She tells of the several settlements in Nebraska and the migration of the masses toward the west. She depicts farm and small town life well and makes one feel as if he were witnessing what she writes about." "As Rolvaag points in 'Giants in the Earth' the hardships and struggles of the pioneers, so does he portray in 'Peder Victorious' the rebellion of the younger generation against the ideas and customs of the older generation."

This discussion points to unescapable conclusions. The student in the fifth term will no longer accept the novel of ideas uncritically and subject to veneration because it is a novel, but, rather, find it in a clue to his own existence. He will be in a position to set up generalizations and then subject these generalizations to socratic scrutiny—which is in essence the clear, detached judgment we are striving for in our schools. The novel has become vital for him because he has identified himself with the background and has immersed himself empathetically into the lives of the characters. What must be emphasized is that he

has evolved for himself a way of thinking to be applied to experience in the workaday world and in the world of books. Let us hope that the artificial dichotomy between both facets of experience will be shattered.

DONALD AXELROD.

James Madison High School.

IS SCIENCE THE CAUSE OF WAR? A PEACE ASSEMBLY PROGRAM

No department in the high schools may honestly shirk its duties in the matter of peace education. Science teachers have been too prone in the past to cast this burden on the shoulders of the history teachers. In times like these, with the world on the brink of a new wide-spread conflict, they, the science teachers, must accept equal responsibility in education for peace. The science department of the Far Rockaway

High School, in full agreement with this viewpoint, presented the program described below at assembly for parents during the recent Open School Week, and subsequently at two more assembly periods for the whole student body. It is customary for the history department to take charge of such an assembly, so that there is a dearth of material on how a science department can participate in a peace program. It may therefore be worthwhile to present the full play as presented at this school, rather than an outline. The three demonstrations used were dry ice in warm water, the photoelectric cell (both the Weston and vacuum types were used), and the Jacob's ladder or horn gap. The writer will be glad to send further information on request.

THE CHARACTERS

1. A Scientist (Sc)
2. Danian (D)
3. Woman (W)
4. Graustarkian (G)
5. Sarakian (S)
6. Narrator (N)

Silent throughout.
Deliberate and dignified.
Quiet but firm.
Easily astounded.
Snappy and Broadwayish.
Only a voice.

The curtain rises on a stage which is dark except for a table in the center dimly illuminated by several concealed green lights, and cluttered with an array of scientific apparatus. A man, the Scientist, is busily working behind the table. After one or two minutes of this, the Narrator is heard; Sc continues to work.

N: "We are told by some people that the true cause of war is science. It is true that, because of the rapid advance of science in recent years, militarists are able to play with such toys as poison gas, airplanes that can drop hundreds of pounds of deadly bombs, cannons that can blow to bits a city many miles away, ma-

chine guns that can cut down men like grass, tanks, submarines, all the horrible weapons of modern warfare. But is it this that makes war? Or is it that science merely makes more efficient, more murderous, the wars that are forced on us by the war-makers? In past centuries, when men wanted to fight, they had to do so face to face, at arm's length; after the invention of gunpowder by the Chinese, soldiers could kill each other at a more convenient distance. But the men who were killed were just as dead one way as the other. No, it is causes other than science that play a part in making a war. Scientific discoveries and inventions are the tools of those who make war. Let us see how science plays its role today. We are watching a scientist at work."

At the proper time during N's speech, Sc has been making certain adjustments so that now a dense cloud of smoke arises from some apparatus before him and continues to pour out during this scene. D walks out from the right.

D: "That's a gas you're making there, isn't it?" (Sc nods.) Poisonous, isn't it? (Sc nods.) Excellent! Now put that together with another gas that will penetrate through a gas mask and cause men to sneeze so that they'll have to take off the mask and be suffocated. Make a gas that will turn men green and horrible-look-

ing. Make a gas that will burn out men's lungs so that they'll cough and vomit blood. Make a gas that will keep men in a lingering, agonizing sickness for years, and keep them a financial and moral burden to our enemy country. Then sell us these gases and those in my country of Dania who want war will pay you well."

Sc nods, picks up a test tube and holds it towards D. A woman walks out from the left.

W: "Wait! Couldn't that gas be changed so that it would be harmless to human beings and yet kill insects? (Sc nods.) Isn't it true that chlorine was used during the last war to kill soldiers and yet it is used today to purify water and to cure colds? (Sc nods.) And isn't it possible that if your scientific knowledge and the money given you by war profiteers were properly used, research might show how to use this new gas for curing certain diseases instead of causing them? (Sc nods.) Then give me your new gas for the people and builders of this world. (She points at D.) He wants to maim people; I want to cure them. He wants to kill people; I want to help them. Give us your chemicals."

Sc holds the test tube first towards D, then towards W.

N: "To whom shall the discoveries of science go? Let us see another example of how science can be used."

Sc manipulates some apparatus

on the table. G walks out from the right.

G: "What's that?"

N: "That is a photoelectric cell, popularly known as the electric eye. (As N talks, Sc performs the required demonstrations.) It has the remarkable property of turning light into electricity. Since we know how to apply electric currents to run and control machines, we have in the photoelectric cell a device by means of which light can be put to work. For example, when a beam of light from a searchlight shines on the cell, the blue electric bulb which is now lit goes out and a bell rings. When the light is removed or cut off by the hand, the bulb goes on again and the bell stops ringing. The photoelectric cell can be so arranged that the searchlight beam will turn on the bulb instead of off."

G: "Why, that's wonderful! Tell me, can you put one of those electric eyes in an airplane to see buildings on the ground and drop bombs with perfect accuracy? (Sc nods.) Wonderful! And can you put them on machine guns and cannons to have them aim and fire all by themselves? (Sc nods.) Wonderful! The war-makers of the country of Graustark will buy your invention. We'll bomb and shell every village in Vendania. Our front lines will be at their very doorsteps. Give it to me." Sc starts to hand cell to G, but stops when W speaks.

W: "Stop! Isn't it your photoelectric cell that's being used in television? (Sc nods.) With television we can open up new possibilities in education and entertainment, important people will be seen as well as heard on the radio. The whole country will be able to watch a football game, the taming of a fire, the inauguration of a president. We, the people, want your cell."

Sc holds up the cell, first towards G, then towards W.

N: "To whom shall this discovery of science go? Let us watch a final demonstration of this question that must be answered."

Sc throws some switches. A large white spark crashes through the air between two vertical wires, moves upwards for three feet and vanishes. This is repeated in rapid succession, over and over. S runs onto the stage from the right boisterously.

S: "Say, you've got something there, brother. And I need it. Is it for sale? (Sc nods.) Boy, that's swell! All you've got to do now is to turn those two wires downwards and shoot that spark right off into the air. Why, that juice would pass through a hundred men and burn them to ashes. Swell! The men in Sarak who want war will buy it."

W: "Don't sell it to him. We will use your electricity, but not to blacken men's bodies in death. We will give men light when it is dark, cook their food when

they are hungry, warm their homes when it is cold. Give us your electric spark."

The four group themselves around Sc, who holds up a test-tube.

D: "We will give you a thousand dollars for your science. Armed with your weapons, we will send our armies into the country of Olympia to defend ourselves, redeem our national honor, and force their people to buy our goods."

G: "We will give you two thousand dollars. With your discoveries, we can march our legions into Vendania, send flame from the skies to burn their villages and kill their woman and children, and take over their country by force."

S: "We need your inventions. We want more iron, more coal, more gold. Your science will equip an army for us. We will throw the whole world into a panic of fear by shouting threats of war. If we are insulted, we will shell unarmed cities in retaliation. We will spread fire and blood and death and war, till our demands are met."

W: "We offer you little, today, but we want your science to work for us. Using it, we can make a new world without war and horror. There will be enough people to buy your goods (Pointing to D). (Points at G) There will be enough land for you. (Points at S) There will be

enough coal and iron for you. We will bring health to the sick and wounded, peace to weary armies, bread to the hungry. Give us your science and we will give you in return a new world."

N: "Step up, gentlemen, step up. The bidding is open. Science for sale, to the highest bidder. What do you offer?"

D: "Five thousand."

G: "Ten thousand."

S: "One hundred thousand."

W: "A new world."

D: "A million!"

G: "One hundred million!"

S: "A thousand million!"

W: "A new world!"

The four stand with arms outstretched towards Sc, who is facing the audience, holding out a test-tube. The curtains slowly close, as N speaks.

N: "For what purpose will the miracles of science be used, for war or for peace? This can not be answered by individual scientists. It is not their problem alone. It is the problem of all the people. It is your problem. Science—for war or for peace? Which shall it be? What is your answer?"

Curtain.

ABRAM BADER.

Far Rockaway High School.

POOR RELATIONS

"A poor relation—is the most irrelevant thing in nature,—a piece of impertinent correspondence,—an odious approximation,—a haunting conscience,—a pre-

posterous shadow, lengthening in the noontide of our prosperity,—an unwelcome remembrancer,—a perpetually recurring mortification,—a drain on your purse,—a more intolerable dun upon your pride,—a drawback upon success,—a rebuke to your rising,—a stain in your blood,—a blot on your 'scutcheon,—a rent in your garment,—a death's head at your banquet,—Agathocles' pot,—a Mordecai in your gate,—a Lazarus at your door,—a lion in your path,—a frog in your chamber,—a fly in your ointment,—a mote in your eye,—a triumph to your enemy, an apology to your friends,—the one thing not needful,—the hail in harvest,—the ounce of sour in a pound of sweet."

Of course, we may not feel as strongly about our poor relations as Charles Lamb did about his, but we are certain that the English Syllabus makers employ no less vehement verbiage in consigning to limbo—or, more often, to purgatory—their "poor relations." And who are these "poor relations?" Those colorful, lively, vital words, those concise commentaries on our fast-changing civilization, those apt adjectives, nouns and verbs which have had a lowly origin, a benighted childhood and an adolescence frustrated by a smug, established hierarchy of respectable, polysyllabic vocabularies!

How often have these "poor relations" knocked at the door of

respectability and social acceptance; and how often have they been repulsed and denied with "vulgar! illiterate! colloquial! slang!" And yet, these hapless gamins of the scholastic back streets have not been without their articulate advocates. Contemporary literature, the newspaper, the screen, the radio, the vernacular, have been using them for years. The Farrells and the Huxleys use them. The Winchells and the Lippmans use them. The Gables and the Cagneys use them with nary a blush. And even Webster's New International Dictionary (unabridged, 1934) has accepted them. But not our educational Petroniuses!

On every occasion, they have been told to wait. Wait until the standard words begin to fade. Wait until your more fortunate relations pass their heyday and are consigned to the sublineal twilight of the dictionary. Wait until the educator joins the lexicographer in freeing the down-trodden masses of underprivileged words.

But didn't some prominent educator say that education should teach the child to pronounce (and spell) those words better which he will pronounce (and spell) anyway? And shouldn't education reflect life?

Well, a few words have already been incorporated in the required word list. You will recognize dumbbell, gangster, jitney, flivver, kiltie, jinx, columnist. And if

kiltie, that relic of the last war, then why not blighty, patrioteer, delouse, cootie, and willies? If flivver, then why not jaywalker, speedster, thermos, hijacker?

"Well," say our dictionary demigods, "we might accept those. But no more!" Still squeamish, aren't they?

We did think of suggesting a few more. For example: once-over, brunch, spoof, okay, lipstick, bonehead, gyp, talkie, profiteer, roughneck, zoom, hokum, duckpin, gob, highbrow, racketeer, debunk, bitter-ender, blurb, pussyfoot, pan-handle, sourdough, slumdom.

However, if our sensitive censors change their minds, they could try to sneak a few more words into the chaste chest of verbals in the syllabus. Of course, these may cause many a polite eyebrow to elevate, but they are no worse than vulgar. So, here are a few more extra-curricular explosives for our new word list.

We suggest: whoopee, hootch, buckaroo, hotfoot, booze, hoosegow, snitch, mutt, razz, jell, and jazz. Lest we be considered inciters to riot, may we repeat that all the above words have been added to the Webster's New International Dictionary (unabridged, 1934). These and many more can now be found everywhere except in the state syllabus for the teaching of English in the high schools. In the normal passage of time these words will find their way into the syllabus, but our whole

argument is based on the simple thesis that the sooner these words are included, the sooner will our curriculum receive a much-needed—page our "poor relations"—"shot in the arm."

SAMUEL BECKOFF.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

MOTIVATION IN LEARNING FRENCH

Why should high school students study French? Teachers of French and other languages, after extensive investigation and experimentation, have offered approximately this answer: to acquire the ability to read the foreign language with ease and enjoyment. This is the most practical aim under present conditions.

But have we ever asked our students for an answer to this question? Studies of this type are somewhat rarer. So we decided to ask our students why they studied French. Our purpose was not to vary the aim in any way; we merely wanted to know whether our method and technique of achieving the reading objective were based on genuine student interest in studying the subject. We presented therefore the five following potential "reasons" for studying French to each of 2,745 students: (1) to learn to read French, (2) to learn to understand spoken French, (3) to learn to speak French, (4) to learn to write French, (5) to obtain Regents credits for graduation.

The students were asked to state their chief reason for studying French. If they had reasons which were not among these five, they were given the opportunity to state them also. The latter were

grouped under the heading, "miscellaneous." The following table shows the results by grades, and the totals of "reasons" for all grades, with the percentage ratings for the totals.

	"REASONS"								
	Grades of French								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7-8	Total	%
To speak French.....	194	222	212	151	98	91	5	973	35.8
To understand spoken French	115	168	146	145	98	53	1	726	26.5
Regents' credits	90	118	140	107	74	68	0	597	21.8
To read French.....	64	68	54	37	49	32	5	309	11.3
To write French.....	15	12	8	4	3	16	3	61	2.2
Miscellaneous	79	2.9

It may be inferred from the above table that our students are interested chiefly in the spoken language, the items "to speak French" and "to understand spoken French" giving a combined score of over 62% of all "reasons." As a psychological truth we find nothing new here. But as an indication of the most effective technique for the achievement of the reading objective, this study, if confirmed by others of a similar character, may be of value. Our problem then would be to devise a technique that would employ as a motivating force what might be called the students' "primitive" interest in the spoken language.

ROBERT BUDA.
James Madison High School.

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMMUNITY SING

In an attempt to interest pupils in the study of German, assembly programs in that language are often offered. The members of the German Club sing German songs or perform short German plays. What part does the audience usually have in the program? The answer is, no part at all. If the audience were given an opportunity to sing, the pupils might gain a pleasant feeling of mastery of German.

In P. S. 73 (Queens) we attempted a "community sing" in German. The immediate aim was not only to bring well-known German songs to the pupils, but also to have them sing with us. The ultimate aim was to interest the pupils in German. Mimeographed

sheets were distributed in the assembly, and on these the pupils found the German text of "Ach, du lieber Augustin," "Wiegenlied" by Brahms, and the popular "Schnitzelbank." On the stage not only members of the German Club, but also many pupils of the various German classes, regardless of their academic standing, first set the melody. These pupils knew the text and melodies from their class work, their club work, and practice with our music teacher, Miss Massita. The procedure was as follows: An English summary of the first song was given; the poem was translated; the words were read in German; the pupils on the stage sang the song; and finally it was sung in German by the assembly pupils. They enjoyed the first song so much it was sung twice! A similar plan was followed for the "Wiegenlied." For the "Schnitzelbank" the pupils on the stage displayed large drawings on which the German for the pictures appeared: "Schnitzelbank," "Kurz und lang," "Geissenbock," "Winterrock," etc. The pupils enjoyed this song very much because of the humorous nature of the drawings.

The reaction among the pupils was favorable. Very many who knew no German sang the selections. I believe that the melody must be familiar to the pupils so that they may feel a sense of mastery even before they have begun to sing the German words.

The "community sing" idea with German songs in an assembly program is not only an active form of healthy pupil participation but is a strong incentive to the pupils to know more about German songs and German.

MAX LEIVE.

Junior High School No. 73,
Queens.

OF PULPS AND SMOOTHIES

The English Department last term decided that profound ignorance of the value and use of magazines was exhibited by a large proportion of the student body. A committee was therefore given the task of drawing up a syllabus for the use and study of current periodicals.

A preliminary survey this term in several of my classes indicated that although some students never, or hardly ever, looked at a magazine, their numbers were as grains of sand on the desert compared to those whose feminine souls thrilled to the vicissitudes of Simple Sally in "True Heartbreak Magazine"; or those who followed with anxiety the tortured lives (but final bliss) of her masochistic sorority in similar publications.

Nor did the movie magazines lack devotees. Girls who did little reading of any sort felt, nevertheless, that life was stale, flat, and unprofitable, unless they knew what Robert Taylor ate for breakfast, and how turbulent was the inner life of Mickey Mouse.

The masculine contingent, I dis-

covered, read magazines too. Western, sport, and detective "thrillers" had their solid phalanxes of readers. The ranks were thinning a bit, however, because of the new "lookie" magazines, with their Hearstian emphasis on sex, crime, and morbid details. Then there was the group of serious-minded sophisticates who read "Esquire." The imposing array of prominent writers who contributed to it attracted this group, they explained. They presumably had neither the time nor the inclination to glance at such trivialities as full-page variations-on-a-single-theme cartoons.

The problem then, was not to induce the students to read magazines but to develop standards of judgment which would help them select better magazines and reject poor ones. The Magazine Syllabus, drawn up by a committee of teachers of the English Department, had a series of interesting lessons for the solution of the problem.

The pupils were asked to bring in copies of their favorite magazines. In a period of informal discussion the contents of each magazine, including advertisements, were examined and criticized. The students soon arrived at the conclusion that a pulp "thriller" diet becomes extremely monotonous. In each issue most of the stories were essentially the same in plot and character portrayal as those in the previous issue; except that the hero's name

was changed occasionally from Jack Dalton to Jim Dudley, and that from the marine division he was transferred to the aviation branch of the service. Similarly, the laughable elements in other types of low-grade magazines were held up to ridicule by the more discerning members of the class.

A valuable by-product of this process was the analysis of current advertising methods. The cheaper magazines could often be detected by the quack products advertised in them. A committee of students did some research work and came back with some startling information culled from books like *One Hundred Million Guinea Pigs*, *Skin-Deep*, and articles from the Federal Department of Agriculture publication, "Consumers' Guide." As consumers, they thus became aware of the misleading claims made by some unscrupulous manufacturers, especially in the field of drugs and cosmetics. This later led to a composition project urging passage by the federal government of adequate food and drug laws.

After the pulp, "confession," and similar magazines had been discredited, the process of developing an interest in better magazines was begun. Copies of various publications were brought to class by students who discussed the range of interests covered, and the variety of subject matter in each issue. The students were then asked to familiarize themselves

with periodicals which might give them information concerning their hobbies and future vocations.

As a follow-up device, the class arranged to present a radio program each Monday, during which the students reported on magazine articles read the previous week. A program director was chosen each week, and as the students handed him the titles and sources of their articles several days in advance of the broadcast, a unified program based on a central theme was usually possible. In the actual presentation of the articles, imagination was given free rein, so that dramatizations and interviews with famous writers, statesmen, and scientists often took place. A modification of the "Town Hall of the Air" program was used, to permit students to question the speakers at the conclusion of the broadcast, or to attack statements made. Lively, impromptu debates often resulted.

Some of the students subscribed to "Scholastic Magazine" and contributed to the program such varied fare as news-of-the-week broadcasts, modern poetry readings, and dramatizations of scenes from recent plays. "Reader's Digest," obtained at a reduced school price, became quite popular and made articles available from a wide range of magazines. It seems to me that there has been a definite upsurge of interest in current periodicals since the class started the radio programs. But best of

all, the students learned to cooperate in preparing joint interviews or dramatizations, and some of the lesser lights in the class were given an opportunity to glow and sparkle with newly-acquired wit as announcers for the programs.

MURRAY GABEL,
James Madison High School.

ARMISTICE DAY AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

As Armistice Day approaches, the various departments are asked how their respective subjects may be correlated with the teaching of the peace ideal. And à propos, a little preaching might be very well combined with the teaching of peace. What role can the teacher of languages play in the teaching of this ideal?

Without making any extravagant claims, I think that the language teacher can help considerably to further the cause of peace. The question is how?

First of all, we ourselves, as language teachers, must believe in peace firmly, and put into practice the logical implications that follow from our belief. Unless we keep this ideal actively before us and let it permeate our daily lives, there can be no results of such teaching. Can we really teach what we do not believe? In our national and international outlook, in our attitude toward our colleagues and students whose opin-

ions may not coincide with ours, we must manifest both tolerance and understanding. Our perspective must be broad, not narrow and bigoted. Our approach to problems and contacts must be rational rather than emotional. We must always keep in our consciousness the idea that we are the means of spreading the gospel of understanding and therefore of peace. We should refrain from indulging in any activity which foment discord and ignites passions. Pettiness should be conspicuous by its absence in the language teacher. The exaltation of one language over another is hardly worthy of a teacher, and aside from being puerile is contrary to the best interests of language teaching as a whole. By the same token, we should not subscribe blindly to the political ideology of the country whose language we are teaching, whether we think that ideology is right or wrong. In no case should one's personal opinions concerning the country be injected into the classroom. There is no place for such propaganda in the school. It would be very unfortunate if instruction in foreign languages should result in the formation of big minority groups whose first allegiance lay with the fatherland rather than with this country. Certainly this would not advance the cause of peace.

So much for the language

teacher himself. What about the service of the language? The chief function of language is to convey thought, to exchange ideas. If we could not convey thought we would be as isolated as on a desert isle. Now, while language is not the perfect instrument for conveying thought, being at best indirect, it is the best we have at our disposal, unless we be psychic or possess telepathic powers. If we could not exchange ideas we would be in a chronic state of misunderstanding, a situation which inevitably leads to quarrels, to war. Whether it be between individuals or whether it be between nations, misunderstanding and ignorance are the cause of strife. Language is a means whereby we can acquire an insight into the psychology of a nation; whereby we can understand its system of representations, its subtleties as well as its broad ideas. It is like a window in the soul of a nation. But the purely linguistic side is but one factor in establishing communion between nations. Our conceptions of modern language teaching are much broader these days, what with the teaching of culture and civilization! For the purpose of instruction we should cull from the treasure house of a nation's culture only what represents the high aspirations of that nation, only what is universal and what contributes to place humanity one peg higher in the process of spirit-

ual evolution.

Language study should make us cosmopolitans in the better sense of the word, citizens of the world, and possessors of its common cultural heritage, and lan-

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

BIBLIOGRAPHIES ON THE AMERICAN POSSESSIONS

Under the direction of Professor Charles F. Reid, Department of Education, College of the City of New York, there is being prepared a series of bibliographies on United States Possessions. That on Guam has already appeared, in mimeographed form. Others are being prepared on Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, the Philippine Islands, American Samoa, Panama Canal Zone, and the Virgin Islands. These bibliographies are being compiled through funds furnished by the Works Progress Administration. A staff of seventy research workers and linguists in German, French, Spanish, Italian, Russian, and Danish languages are employed in this work. The total expense to date is over one hundred thousand dollars.

These bibliographies, of which Guam is the first one, are free to all public schools, public libraries, colleges and universities, governmental offices and private foundations. Six hundred copies of Guam have already been distributed and five hundred more are available upon request to Professor Reid.

guage teachers should be cultural ambassadors. Were this ideal attained, what chance would war have?

HERBERT FRIED,
Erasmus Hall High School.

REVISED HISTORICAL VIEWPOINTS

Note: The New York City History Teachers Association will publish in HIGH POINTS from time to time brief articles on revised viewpoints in history. These will be drawn from current publications as a rule, but where some important viewpoint has been insufficiently publicized past publications will be included. It is anticipated that these articles will not only be of professional interest but also of practical value for classroom teaching. Teachers of the social studies are invited to submit factual contributions for this section to the undersigned at his school.

THE SERVICES OF THE FRONTIER MERCHANT¹

By Lewis E. Atherton

The cowboy and the farmer were not the only agents in the process of transforming the frontier west of the Alleghenies into a modern community. The frontier merchant was an important but

¹Mississippi Valley Historical Review, Vol. XXIV, No. 2, September, 1937, pages 153-170.

unheralded factor in such a transition.

Merchants in a new community performed many services at first. They were counselors, purveyors of information and postmasters as well as storekeepers. Others were doctors who in their role of merchants sold paints and hardware as well as drugs.

Gradually they began to specialize. Some merchants operated a chain of stores in scattered communities, while others operated grist and saw mills, speculated in real estate and built towns. Some merchants bought and exported agricultural produce, loaned money and sold manufactured goods. These were the first steps away from a self-sufficient economy. Farmers were enabled by these services to specialize in staple crops. They no longer needed to make their own clothing and tools, or to grow all the foodstuffs essential to existence. Merchants acting as bankers speeded up the process of specialization of labor. Merchants as leaders of the transition from a self-sufficient economy to one of specialization deserve a large place in the story of the frontier rather than the obscurity that has been their accustomed lot.

THE ABOLITION MOVEMENT²

By Stuart Portner

Recent research displaces Wil-

²Idem, pages 218-220.

liam Lloyd Garrison and New England from the position of primacy in the abolition movement. G. H. Barnes in "The Anti-Slavery Impulse, 1830-40," portrays Theodore Dwight Weld as the champion of the anti-slavery movement. Barnes and D. L. Dumond, editor of the forthcoming Letters of James G. Birney, and co-editor with Barnes of the recently published Weld-Grimke letters, present a revised pattern:

1. Western New York, not New England, was the founding ground of the anti-slavery movement.
2. The spirit of its appeal was not Garrisonian invective, but Christian evangelism.
3. A score or more of aggressive but unpublicized men conducted this crusade with perfect awareness of the strong probability of eventual war.

Portner's article concludes with reference to current research in this field and to pertinent Civil War monographs recently published.

JOHN MARSHALL AS A HISTORIAN³

By William A. Foran

John Marshall has long held an enviable reputation as a scholarly and reliable historian. Irving, Sparks, Winsor, Beard and Osgood, among others, have contributed to its formation.

However a critical examination of Marshall's use of his authorities shows the traditional reputation to

³The American Historical Review, Vol. XLIII No. 1, October, 1937, pages 51-64.

be undeserved. In writing "The Life of Washington" he made little use of original source material, citing only thirty pages of Washington's correspondence in a book of almost a thousand pages. He relied chiefly upon secondary authorities whose works he improperly used. He copied without acknowledgment passages varying from single sentences to entire pages, at times copying verbatim and at others rearranging the sentences. He frequently cited his authority for one paragraph but borrowed three pages. His citations were infrequent and inconsistent. He often cited the wrong authorities and mixed acknowledged and unacknowledged passages indiscriminately.

Marshall should not be accused of plagiarism. Historical writing was at a low level in Marshall's time. He merely followed current practice. In the preface to his first edition Marshall admitted the extent of his borrowing, hoping that a public declaration would rescue him from the imputation of plagiarism.

In addition to showing Marshall's unscholarly and unreliable use of secondary accounts Foran declares "The Life of Washington" was not an outstanding Federalist interpretation of history. There is so little of the Federalist in it because there was so little of Marshall. Further, it is not a faithful historical narrative.

THE DIPLOMATIC REVOLUTION OF 1854⁴

By Gavin B. Henderson

Historians usually declare that the Revolution of 1848 ended the concert of Russia, Prussia and Austria against France. However, it was a tripartite military treaty of December, 1854 between Austria, Britain and France which affected this diplomatic revolution during the Crimean War.

This treaty was the culmination of the efforts of Buol-Schauenstein, Austrian Foreign Minister, to prevent Russian domination of the Balkans. Buol and other anti-Russian Austrian statesmen forced through the signing of the treaty despite diplomatic successes which had already advanced Austrian interests without war. Earlier, partly because of hints to Russia of Austrian ability to secure favorable peace terms from France and Britain, Russia had evacuated the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia. This freed the Danube from Russian control. Then in October, by a bluff at mobilization, Buol induced Russia to agree to four points of peace which set up European rather than Russian controls in the Balkans. English and French adherence had earlier been obtained by Austrian agreement to a joint military alliance.

Henderson feels that Buol's anti-Russian policy was fatal. Apparently it would have been better for Austria to have accepted Rus-

⁴*Idem*, pages 22-50.

sian proposals for mutual spheres of influence in the Balkans. These were made early in 1854 when Austrian military support against England and France was not forthcoming. Russia had expected such aid as repayment for the saving of the Hapsburg monarchy from the Hungarian rebels in 1849. Austrian refusal of aid and rejection of compromise roused the Panslav demon, left her without an ally in 1859 and 1866, and rendered irreconcilable the Austro-Russian rivalry in the Balkans which ultimately involved both Hapsburg and Romanov in ruin.

RALPH B. GUINNESS.

Richmond Hill High School.

Editor for New York City History Teachers Association.

ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY FOR ALL STUDENTS

Why isn't Economic Geography made a required or even an elective subject in the academic curriculum of the high schools? Economic Geography is, I find, taught to the student in the commercial course, but nowhere is it taught to the academic student. Yet it is a subject that is of great general interest, extremely important, vital, current! It covers briefly the food we eat, the clothes we wear, where the materials come from, where the ingredients are grown, what problems arise in their growth and manufacture and sale. We study the leading countries, their imports, their exports, why they grow certain products

and not others, why one country is advanced in manufacturing and another is backward. Such information is of extreme importance and interest to our future citizens.

How can a citizen realize the importance of the problem of the "cotton share cropper" if he doesn't know that cotton is one of the country's leading crops? How can a citizen approve of the investment of millions of dollars in the erection of Grand Coulee, if he has never been made to realize the importance of the utilization of the arid though rich mineral soil of that region. It is my aim in this paper, not to point out the importance of the facts presented in Economic Geography, but to show that the subject offers such splendid opportunities for correlation with other subjects, especially academic subjects, that to keep it out of the curriculum is to defeat the aims of modern education.

Let us take the Mathematics Department, first of all. In Economic Geography, there is much work in reading and interpreting of statistical graphs as well as many discussions of present vs. future values of government projects (Boulder Dam). Now, certainly in the former, there exist many opportunities for both departments to work hand in hand.

Then let us take the Science Departments (physics, biology, chemistry, general science, physiography). In the discussion of

fuels and mechanical energy and the machines utilized for their conversion there exist opportunities to cooperate with the sciences. How stimulating to the pupil to have both the physics teacher and the Economic Geography teacher explaining hydroelectric power at the same time! One discusses the physical aspect; the other, the economic result and significance.

Biology is closely tied up with Economic Geography in the discussion of pests and diseases attacking the plant growth of the world, what is being done and why it is important to do so. Chemistry might find it interesting to lend a hand in the discussion of fertilizers, the various kinds, how and where obtained.

There is a magnificent opportunity for the English Department to work in splendid unity with the teacher of Economic Geography. How much vocabulary building the Economic Geography teacher does! How much drill in reading and interpreting of the textbook is carried on in class! How the teacher strives to make the students give only the information asked for, and how she works to have them present their material in clear and correct English. Themes in English composition and speeches in Elocution classes could be derived from subjects developed in the Economic Geography class to the interest and stimulation of the students.

Let us not forget the foreign

language departments. Here, all the material on background, customs, habits, peoples really can be utilized; nay, even added to by the Economic Geography teacher. Why is that country an agricultural rather than an industrial country? Why does this nation use olive oil in its kitchens while that nation uses only butter? Why were both Germany and France so vitally interested in the Alsace-Lorraine region? Was it for the land itself, for revenge, or for a perfectly sound economic reason?

There is perfect harmony and understanding between the librarian and the Economic Geography teacher. Exhibits, books, maps, magazines, encyclopedia, dictionaries are utilized as reference material to their fullest extent by the ambitious students in their quest for material. Books lying neglected and forgotten on their shelves on textiles, fuels, woods, are now eagerly sought for by students working on topics in Economic Geography.

Because Economic Geography is an interesting, inspiring and stimulating subject of great current interest to both students and teachers, because it is so easily coordinated with the other courses given by the various departments, I believe that Economic Geography should be included in the curriculum for the academic students.

LILLIAN DREILING,
Girls Commercial High School.

FEDERAL AID FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION IN NEW YORK STATE

Will New York State benefit by federal aid for public education? Or does the endorsement of federal aid by over 47,000 New York State teachers only indicate that New York State is being altruistic? In order to answer these questions three other questions must be answered. (1) Is New York State concerned with educational inequalities in other sections of the country? (2) What will it cost the citizens of New York State to assume their share of the cost of removing some of the existing inequalities? (3) How will this expenditure affect public school support in New York State?

I. NEW YORK'S STAKE IN EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

New York State should be deeply concerned with the kind of educational opportunities available in other sections of the country. This concern should arise from at least five trends in our national life. (1) New York State with the nation's largest metropolitan area located within its boundaries attracts people from all parts of the nation. A study¹ by Eels, based on United States census data, shows such striking facts as the following: Of New York State's 9,325,788 residents born in the

United States, 1,374,000 were born in other states. That is fifteen percent were born, and probably educated in other states. Every state has contributed some residents to New York State, but the following are the largest contributors:

Pennsylvania	about 320,000
New Jersey	" 160,000
Massachusetts	" 120,000
Connecticut	" 90,000
Virginia	" 80,000
Ohio	" 60,000
Illinois	" 50,000
South Carolina	" 50,000
North Carolina	" 40,000

Hence, if any state is unable to provide a reasonable degree of education for all its citizens, New York might be affected through migration.

(2) With the development of large scale enterprise and increased interstate commerce, national issues tend to replace local issues in the degree to which they affect the welfare of individual citizens. Tariffs, conservation, farm income, labor income, corporate finance, speculation, and similar problems affect the prosperity and well-being of the whole nation. Such large issues are placed before the American people, during every national election and every congressional session. Only education can enable citizens in the various states to rise above narrow selfishness and sectionalism, and to see the greatest good for the greatest many.

¹New York State Education 23: 229-30, December, 1935.

(3) The development of rapid and cheap modes of transportation means that crime, delinquency, and other social problems abetted by ignorance can no longer be localized. Crime has become such an interstate menace that the law enforcement activities of the federal government have been greatly expanded during the past decade. "G-Man" has become a commonly understood symbol. Yet, crime prevention is more important than crime detection. The federal government should do all in its power to prevent crime. One way to do this is to help the states provide a better education for all their citizens.

(4) The prosperity of New York State is dependent upon the prosperity of the country as a whole. The creation of wealth requires both natural resources and a healthy, industrious, skilled, intelligent, and inventive people. We have the natural resources. These the federal government has taken steps to conserve; but what about conserving our human resources? Shouldn't the federal government be as interested in its people as it is in its resources? A people possessing the characteristic essential to the abundant production of wealth can be developed only through education. But wealth is no good unless it is consumed wisely; indeed the unwise consumption of wealth may lead to degeneration. Education is equal-

ly essential to the wise consumption of abundant wealth.

(5) Glaring inequalities in educational opportunities have been increasing among the various American states. The average annual expenditure per pupil varies from \$24.00 per pupil to \$134 per pupil. The length of the school term varies from 137 days to 188 days. The average annual teacher's salary ranges from \$655 to \$2,494. Over half the rural teachers in one state have only a high school education or less. About half the rural teachers in another state have three years training beyond the high school or more. The percentage of children of high school age (14 to 17) attending high school ranges from 28 percent in one state to 95 percent in another. Other evidences of deplorable inequalities may be found in the recent national surveys of school finance and teacher education.

II. THE COST OF REMOVING INEQUALITIES IN EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

The foregoing inequalities can not be removed without federal aid for education. (1) Recent studies have shown that if some states made every tax reform possible they could not provide a reasonable minimum of education for all children in the state. The fact is, that many states just do not have the economic resources. If

the same tax system were applied in all states, it would raise only \$18.00 per capita in one state and \$109 in another state. If estimated wealth is taken as a measure of ability, the wealth per pupil ranges from \$2,818 in one state to \$21,582 in another. If estimated income is taken as a measure of ability it varies from \$495 per pupil in one state to \$3,766 in another.

(2) New York State itself needs federal aid if it is to make progress toward its ultimate minimum program of \$3,000 an elementary school class, or even if it is to attain what seemed to be a reason-

able minimum ten years ago, that is, \$1,900 per elementary school class. The last session of the New York State legislature has demonstrated how difficult it is to get even a \$3,000,000 increase in state aid to include kindergartens in the minimum program.

Much of the difficulty encountered in extending New York State's plan of state aid is due in no small part to the fact that the federal government is taxing the same sources from which the state school funds are derived. The New York State General Fund from which state aid was apportioned in 1935 consisted of the following revenues:

<i>Tax</i>	<i>Amount to nearest dollar</i>	<i>Percent of total receipts</i>
Personal income	\$47,951,554	19.1
Motor fuel	43,373,611	17.3
Corporations (including organization).....	38,943,069	15.5
Motor vehicles	32,190,830	12.8
Inheritance	29,668,781	11.8
Alcoholic beverages	19,044,037	7.6
Stocks, insurance, and mortgage.....	18,337,112	7.3
Miscellaneous revenues	10,649,017	4.2
Sales tax	7,754,047	3.1
Armory, courts, stenographers—county levy.....	2,294,611	0.9
Racing, boxing, motion pictures, milk.....	1,037,891	0.4
General property—direct state.....	—	0.0
Total.....	\$251,244,650	100.0

Revenues for the support of the federal government for the same year, 1935, consisted of the following:

Tax	Amount	Percent of total
Corporation income	\$572,100,000	
Personal income	527,100,000	18.4
Tobacco	459,200,000	16.9
Liquor	411,000,000	14.7
Customs duties	344,900,000	13.2
Manufacturers excise	342,300,000	11.0
Estate (inheritance)	140,200,000	11.0
Capital stock	91,500,000	4.5
Gift	71,700,000	2.9
Documentary stamp	43,100,000	2.3
Miscellaneous	114,800,000	1.4
		3.7
Total.....	\$3,118,100,000	100.0

The federal government, moreover, is better able to collect income taxes and business taxes than is any individual state, because it is easier for individuals and corporations to evade state taxes on these sources. When such sources are taxed heavily by the federal government, they offer strong resistance to any increased state taxes.

The Harrison-Black-Fletcher bill presented in the United States congress recognizes the obligation of the federal government to help the states overcome inequalities in educational opportunities. It provides for an initial appropriation of \$100,000,000, which is to be increased \$50,000,000 a year until \$300,000,000 a year is provided. The funds are allocated to the states according to the number of persons five to twenty years of age residing in the vari-

ous states. The states are free to use such funds for public education in any way such states see fit. No federal controls accompany the appropriations.

The cost of this program of federal aid will not necessarily increase the tax burden in New York State. Many of the large items of expenditure now being made by the federal government represent temporary or emergency expenditures much of which probably will be tapered off gradually in the next few years. The appropriation of 100 million dollars for federal aid is but a very small fraction of these latter expenditures. Besides the amount for federal aid is increased gradually over a period of five years. Thus, it is probable that the increased federal expenditure for public education will be offset by

(1) the decrease in emergency

expenditures, and (2) the increase in the yield of existing federal taxes due to the rapid rise in the national income which is now taking place.

Even if the entire cost of federal aid had to be paid out of new taxes the increase in the tax burden in New York State would not be as great as might be expected. In the first place, a large part of the federal taxes collected in New York State are customs duties which are really paid by the buyers of imported goods in all parts of the country. In 1935 over half of the \$344,292,570 of customs duties collected by the federal government was credited to New York State. The State Tax Commission estimates that not much more than a tenth of this, or \$35,299,973, is applicable to New York State. In the second place, as Professor Goldthorpe has shown, the amount of the corporate income tax credited to New York is misleading. He supports following:

"the Union Pacific Railroad as an agent of 48,500 stockholders, with a charter from Utah, conducting its operations in eleven western states beyond the Missouri River, paid its 1930 income tax of 3½ million dollars through its New York office. The Southern Pacific Railroad, chartered under the laws of Kentucky, pays its in-

come taxes through the New York City office, although its nearest point of operation to New York is New Orleans, and its 233,000 owners live in all of the states."¹ . . . "Based upon the treasury's *Statistics of Income for 1933*, the latest available report, it was found that of the total of 504,080 corporations which filed tax returns, 110,436 filed their returns in New York State. Of the total number which filed returns in the state, approximately one-fifth showed taxable net incomes totaling 832 million dollars, on which they paid corporation income taxes of \$118,321,002.² This sum was paid into the federal treasury out of profits which otherwise would have been distributed to millions of stockholders residing in all states of the union."³

Tobacco, liquor, and manufacturer's excise taxes are credited at the point of manufacture, or processing, and not at the point of extraction or sale; so that the amount of these taxes credited to a state is misleading too.

The New York State Tax Commission estimates that 22.8% of

¹Goldthorpe, J. Harold. "Certain Aspects of the Incidence of Federal Taxes", *American Educational Research Assoc. Official Report*, 1936, p. 249-250.

²U.S. Treasury Dept., Bureau of Internal Revenue. "Statistics of Income for 1933." Washington, D. C. Gv't. Printing Office, 1935, p. 140 and 201.

³Ibid, p. 255.

the taxes collected by the federal government are applicable to New York State. It is probably safe to say that the maximum percent which may be credited to New York State residents is about twenty.¹

Using this estimate and assuming that new taxes must be levied to pay the entire cost of the federal aid program (which is very improbable), the amount of taxes which would be levied in New York State would be \$20,000,000 the first year, \$30,000,000 the second, \$40,000,000 the third, \$50,000,000 the fourth, and \$60,000,000 the fifth. That is, even if the entire cost had to be met by new taxes, it would add less than three percent to the total tax burden in New York State.

These estimates do not take into account the fact that New York State under a federal aid program will get back much more of the federally collected revenues than it does under federal taxes collected for most other purposes. Federal aid for education gives the citizens of New York State a chance to get back part of federal tax revenues which probably would be collected anyway and not returned in the form of state subsidies.

What New York State does not

¹This is the figure set by the Industrial Conference Board in *Cost of Government in the United States, 1933-1935*, p. 38-39.

get back will be spent for a purpose which will promote the welfare of New York State as well as the nation as a whole.

III. FEDERAL AID AND STATE SUPPORT

In the fifth year after the adoption of the Harrison-Black-Fletcher bill New York State would receive \$26,439,999. In other words, the amount of state aid available for schools would be increased 20%.

The figures for the first four years are \$8,813,332 the first; \$13,219,998, the second; \$17,626,664 the third; and \$22,033,330 the fourth year. How might these amounts be useful?

New York State has not secured a reasonable minimum of educational opportunity for all its children. This may be seen from the following facts. (1) The New York State plan of state aid is based upon the premise that the state should be able to provide an educational program for all its children at least as good as that provided in communities of average wealth. If elementary school children had been guaranteed the minimum opportunity available in communities of average wealth in 1922-1923, the present level would be \$1,900 per elementary school class instead of \$1,500. If children were given the opportunity available in communities of average wealth today, the program

would have to be increased to \$3,000 per elementary class. (2) Moreover, educational needs and trends have changed considerably since 1923. Kindergarten opportunities for young children and junior high school opportunities for adolescent children are now generally accepted as part of the educational program. Although these opportunities cost more than the traditional offerings, such extra costs are not provided for in the present minimum program. (3) Nor does the present program make an allowance for housing the public school pupils. Expenditures for building grounds, and equipment must now be paid out of local taxes. Because of this, many poor districts are not able to provide buildings and grounds which meet modern standards of sanitation, health, and safety. Consequently, some provision for capital outlay must be made in the minimum program if any real degree of educational opportunity is to be attained. (4) Furthermore, due to certain factors not attributable to the original equalization plan, many of the poor rural districts have not yet attained the \$1,500 minimum program.

There are a number of other improvements needed to bring about more equalization in the burden of support in New York State. (1) Some sparsely settled communities are not able to provide the minimum program with-

out local taxes in excess of the tax rate upon which the minimum program is equalized. Most of the resulting inequality in the burden of support is due to the fact that such districts must transport their children to get them to high schools or to elementary schools large enough to provide the minimum opportunities available on the average throughout the state. The state pays \$50.00 tuition for non-resident high school pupils and one-half the cost of transportation, but that means that only half of the inequality in the burden of support is removed. State aid for transportation must be increased. (2) Some school districts are so small that they cannot provide the minimum of educational opportunity until they are made larger through reorganization. At present practically the entire cost of forming larger school districts is left to local taxes in the early years when state aid is most needed. This introduces inequality in the burden of support which can be removed only through increased state aid for reorganized districts during the period of reorganization.

The state is free to use federal aid for any of the above purposes without any controls from the federal government. New York State might use about \$3,000,000 of the amount to include kindergartens in its minimum program; and use the remaining \$23,000,000

to raise its minimum program from \$1,500 a class to \$1,800 a class, to allow more state aid for transportation, and to raise the minimum program for one-teacher school districts.

IV. WHAT FEDERAL AID MEANS TO NEW YORK STATE

Federal aid for education means then that state aid for public education in New York State will be increased by a fifth. This will be accomplished without any in-

crease in local or state taxes and probably without any significant increase in federal taxes as has already been shown. Furthermore, New York State will be helping to remove educational inequalities in other sections of the country, thereby promoting its own welfare as well as the welfare of the country as a whole.

—From Circular No. 14,
Public Information Service
New York State Teachers'
Association.

REVIEWS

THE TEACHING OF THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES, FRANCE AND SOVIET RUSSIA

By Alexander Efron. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 725. 296 pages, \$2.35.

"The American secondary school yields to no other in the broadness of its democratic program, the richness and variety of the curricular and extracurricular offerings, and the adaptations to the needs of a heterogeneous and unselective clientele. Unlike the European secondary school, however, the American high school lacks historical perspective and exhibits no clear-cut educational philosophy. It has not yet evolved a definite purpose and such a truly national objective as the French *culture générale* or the Soviet idea of *polytechnization*. It retains, in-

stead, an empirical, progressive point of view."

These, in brief, are the conclusions of a study undertaken by Dr. Efron, Chairman of the Physical Science Department of John Adams High School. The foreign phase of the investigation was based on a seven months resident study in France and Russia made in 1935 by the author, who speaks both of the foreign languages involved.

Dr. Efron is aware of the existence of a number of important and highly variable factors which render impossible both any valid comparison of actual educational outcomes, and any vital importation of science programs. Consider, for example, the selection of secondary school pupils in the three countries. In France, compulsory education ends at 14, and only 3% of its population between the ages

of 13 and 16 attend the higher primary schools. (An equally small number are enrolled in vocational schools.) Compare this group which comes from the more economically comfortable families of France with the huge, heterogeneous mass of our own secondary schools comprising about 70% of our whole population between the ages of 15 and 17, and with the seven million high school pupils of the Soviet Union representing about 50% of this same age group.

In spite of this, however, the study reveals several interesting similarities. Syllabi in physics and chemistry are almost identical. In none of these lands has any serious attempt been made to fuse the two sciences. Except for the omission of the electron theory, so universally taught here in connection with the Lewis-Langmuir picture of the atom and its explanation of valence, chemical activity, etc., the three chemistry courses of study are practically interchangeable. It is rather curious that France, whose secondary education is dedicated and geared to a small, rigidly selected group of its future *élite*, should object to the teaching of this modern theory on the ground of its *vulgarization* or unwarranted popularization. The explanation given is that the concept to be really understood involves a great deal of very difficult mathematics. This cannot be grasped by the high school pupil; therefore, rather

than oversimplify the electron theory, it is not introduced. Incidentally, here as in our own schools, a variety of drill and problem books and other examination aids are employed to supplement the regular textbooks.

All three countries give lip service to more or less the same worthwhile objectives of science teaching. Only a dissimilar emphasis distinguishes the teaching goals of the three systems of education. In France the old faculty psychology which accepts mental discipline and transfer of training still holds sway. The quantitative and mathematical sides of physics, and pure thought rather than applied knowledge are supposed to be stressed. In Russia, on the other hand, science is taught in terms of society's immediate needs. While not abandoning other aspects of science teaching, Russia, in the throes of a gigantic industrial and technological revolution, is hammering away at the utilitarian values of physics and chemistry. Polytechnization, that is, teaching the principles of all the processes of production and practical training in the use of the simplest tools of industry, is of paramount importance. It was this same emphasis that characterized the teaching of these same subjects in the United States for almost a century while our own continent, fabulously rich in natural resources, was being exploited.

Russia, in addition, has introduced something new in the teaching of the sciences. Science is used both as a stimulus and as a weapon for the reconstruction of the social order. All science students in teacher-training institutions besides studying the history of science, are also required to take courses in dialectical and historical materialism, the history of the Communist Party, and military tactics consuming 257 hours out of a total of 3000 hours of study. High school textbooks, too, have been written to fit this program. For example, on page 78 of Part 1 of the official Chemistry text used in all secondary schools, I found the following under the topic *Slow Oxidation*: "A class-conscious soviet worker and every soviet citizen must fully realize the great loss caused by the rusting of metals. A worker who understands the importance of machines in socialist reconstruction will never regret the time spent in rubbing, cleaning and oiling the metal parts of machines." Under the heading *Chemical Transformations* (page 12) every boy and girl is taught that "Only in a proletarian country can every new discovery and achievement in science be utilized for the benefit of the working masses. Only in the hands of the proletariat can science triumphantly progress and become a powerful weapon in man's struggle with nature." And on page 71 of the same textbook, in a discus-

sion of the chemistry of sulphuric acid, one reads: "The growth of the sulphuric acid industry must serve not only as a means of assuring the production of mineral fertilizers and of the products necessary for other branches of industry, it must also serve for the production of explosives upon which depends the military might of the U.S.S.R. and its readiness at a moment's notice to repel any aggressive attempts of hostile, imperialist states."

Another marked difference is Russia's system of examinations. No uniform written, end term examinations are given. Each high school pupil is examined orally by his own teacher near the close of the school year, the entire last quarter of which is devoted to review and drill. The examination also includes a practical test in the use of apparatus. "Unfortunately," writes Dr. Efron, "the test as a whole does not appear to be long enough, to be sufficiently comprehensive, nor is its phrasing such as to assure a high objectivity."

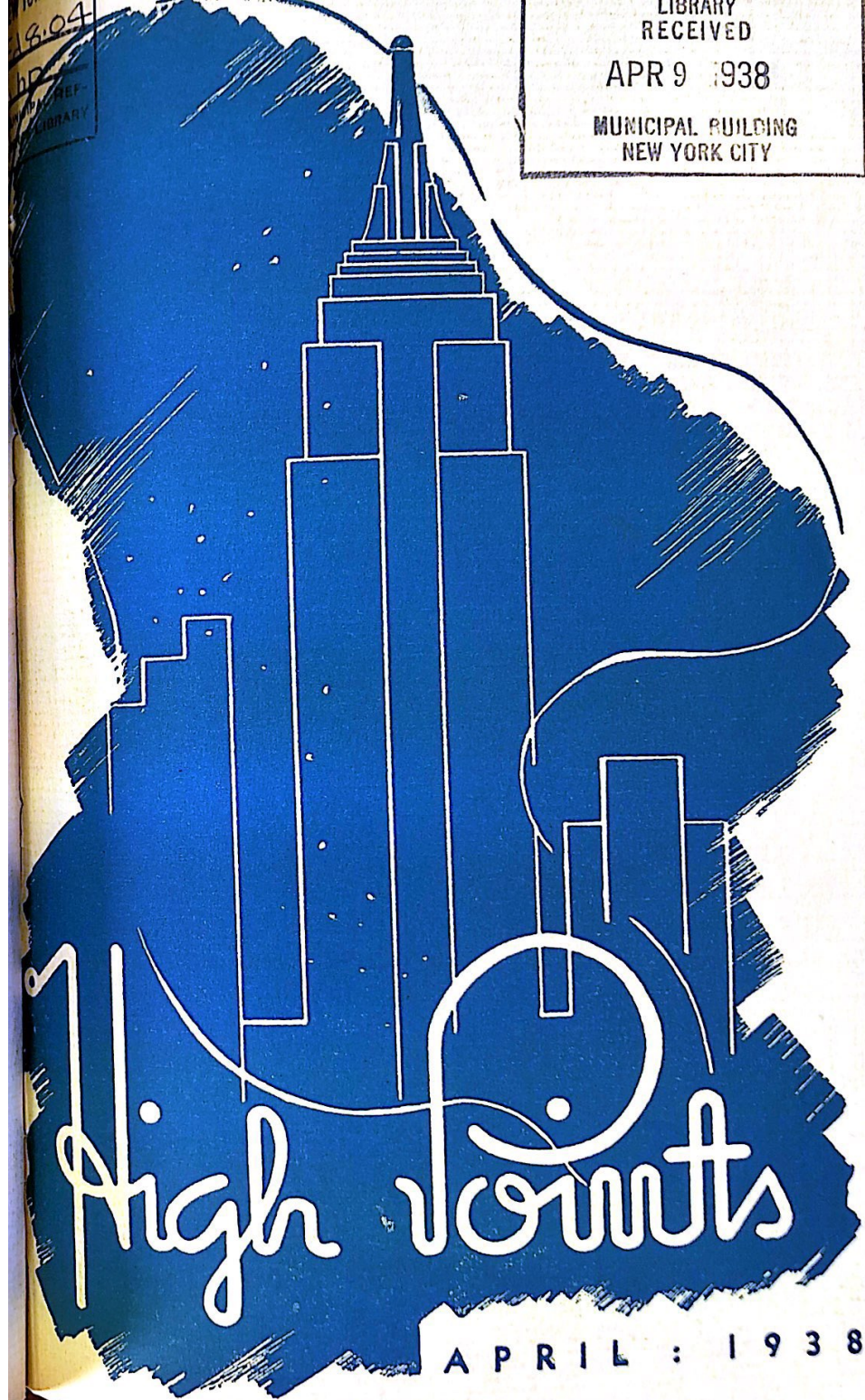
This interesting dissertation deals almost exclusively with physics and chemistry. The value of the study might have been enhanced had Efron included biology, physiography and especially that enfant terrible, General Science. Perhaps some day he will.

BERNARD JAFFE,

Chairman, Physical Science Department, Bushwick High School.

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FIFTY YEARS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION*

It would almost seem that this talk is an act of supererogation for Dr. Tillinghast has just covered this same period in his little book, "Horace Mann After Fifty Years," the Horace Mann School and I started our secondary educational courses the same year and after surviving the coming and going of all kinds of educational discoveries, experiments, philosophies, I find myself in thorough accord with the closing sentences of Horace Mann's confession of faith, "If its present emphasis is upon those essentials which are permanent and constant in society, it is because it seems clear that the best interests of the students of the school and of the society of which they are a part, demand it."

Will you pardon just a little (more) autobiography, for my own early school experiences are typical of the schooling of the years just before fifty years ago, on the foundation of which the fifty years of secondary schooling were necessarily built.

When I began my high school education at the age of 14, I found myself amply equipped for doing

high school work easily and successfully. Thanks to a number of women teachers of rich personality, thoroughly human, but with exacting standards of performance based on a conviction that there was nothing in the accepted fields of elementary work that we were not capable of mastering, as we entered the high school we all could use reading as a well sharpened tool, had a large spelling vocabulary, would defy anyone to set us an arithmetical problem we could not solve; could analyze and diagram any sentence however involved and long; could write grammatically though woodenly; could visualize and reproduce on the blackboard almost any large section of the world's surface including chief natural features, more important cities, canals, and other transportation routes; and above all, we had a definite standard of perfection and were disappointed over anything less than a perfect rating. But we knew nothing of art and very little of music. Except as we had learned something of nature in the weekly meetings of our Agassiz Society, we knew little of science. We had not been taught to see the beauty of trees, of clouds, of sunsets, or of the

* An address given before the Schoolmasters Association, at Columbia University.

starry sky. No teacher had concerned herself over our, for the most part, torpid imaginations.

But it must be remembered that in those dark ages, we all had homes in which father and mother, especially mother, had not yet abdicated their sovereignty. As a matter of course we had chores to do, errands of all kinds which carried us into intimate association with grocers, butchers, tailors, carpenters, blacksmiths, tinsmiths, millers, shoemakers, coopers, bakers, and a score more of skilled mechanics.

We very largely educated each other through the never ceasing playing of games, different for each season of the year. I said never ceasing; we played before school, at recess, and after school, interrupted only by errands and chores and the call to meals and to bed. So that most of us came to the high school with well developed bodies, trained in group action, accustomed to give and obey commands and with a sense of responsibility to the group for playing our part to the limit under penalty of unrestrained condemnation by our fellows. Woe to the player who was caught napping at first base or at prisoner's base.

I have said that we largely educated each other through our games; that our families and our neighbors were active educative forces, as also were the Church and Sunday School. We must

not overlook the educational value of the constant reading and memorization of verses and even chapters, of proverbs and psalms of the King James version of the Bible, of the listening to carefully prepared doctrinal sermons.

But why this long introduction to my theme, "Fifty Years of American Secondary Education," Just to show you younger men why those of us who were exposed to the narrow, set, high school curriculum of fifty years ago and why even those who have not even entered the high school, could not be rightly viewed as badly educated or exactly as victims of the organized tyrants of an age that had not discovered child psychology and especially its great principle that "the instinct of the child is a better guide to what is best for him in education than is the accumulated experience of the race." We anticipated Lincoln School and Everett by 40 years. He tells us in his "Challenge to Secondary Education," that "five of the six periods of each day should be devoted to the study of current social happenings and only one period each day be devoted to the study of the trombone or aesthetic dancing or by the few wayward, intractable ones, to mathematics or to a foreign language or history." We did not need to go to school to learn about social happenings or the phases of making this or that, for

after school, on Saturdays and in vacations, every blacksmith shop, wagon factory, stave mill, saw mill, block factory, rolling mill, flour mill, foundry, machine shop, printing office, boiler factory, was for us always open, notwithstanding the "No Admittance" sign, and any one of us could have told you quite accurately about making all these products. So our teachers did not have to bother about orienting us to our economic and social environment. We did all the orienting ourselves and the teachers had all their time free to see that we knew how to read and spell, write a legible hand, master the fundamental operations of arithmetic and solve any arithmetical problem that could be given us, be able to visualize the map of any considerable section of the world, and to analyze and diagram any sentence however long and involved.

Our teachers were not worried about formal discipline and transfer of training. They just believed in it and as a result of their now out-moded beliefs and the games we played all our waking hours, we proved that training is transferable by being able to adjust ourselves not only to any new game, but to any new and strange occupation without much difficulty. How fortunate it is to be deprived when young of inhibiting educational discoveries! It was too late when I reached New

York to swallow the non-transfer idea, for all my life I had been able to do something with any new situation in which I found myself, provided I was interested in it.

When after two years of high school in what I discovered only this week was the oldest high school in this state, where I studied English grammar, higher arithmetic, physiology, bookkeeping, Latin, algebra and physics. I continued my education at Mt. Hermon School, where I found myself studying Latin, Greek, Mathematics, Rhetoric and the Bible for the next two and one-half years.

What a wretched preparation this was for life as compared with the many subjects offered for the free choice of the students in the general course of our New York high schools! But strangely enough, I have never to this day discovered its weakness. I had two wonderful teachers in Greek and Latin, Miss Ford and Miss Sawyer, who made us content with nothing short of perfection, and who gave us an undying love for the classics which has survived forty years of New York. It was fortunate for me that Boards of Examiners had not been discovered in those days, else I might not have learned to strive for perfection or love Athens and Rome. For neither of these teachers had ever taken a course in methods of teaching or darkened the doors

of a teachers' college or normal school. How then could they teach?

We had just one rule to be observed. Two hours' preparation for each subject or no excuses accepted for any mistake or omission. It may be that with such a narrow curriculum and untrained teachers, I gained my education as so many do now, if you really believe they do get an education, in the extra-curricular activities.

The secondary education I have just described was almost universal fifty years ago. Oddly enough, its victims did not seem to be crippled for life by it. Of the two boys who sat directly behind me in a double seat in the high school, one Cuthbert W. Pound, after serving as a professor of law at Cornell University, although he was not a college graduate, retired some three years ago as the Chief Justice of the Court of Appeals of the state of New York, and his seatmate, Frederick Fessenden is now retired as the founder and headmaster of the most famous school for young boys in this country.

We are apt to think of the secondary school in this country as beginning with a very narrow curriculum and in these days as offering a very rich curriculum. The first secondary schools in this part of the country were the private academies which were operated primarily as fitting schools

for college, stressing the studies of Latin, Greek and mathematics. They or their successors still offer curricula that might be described as narrow. Professor Judd quotes the United States Bureau of Education for the statement that "in 1890 the high schools of this country were offering instruction in nine major subjects, whereas they are now offering instruction in 250 subjects." We naturally conclude that the tendency in secondary schools is to progress from a narrow curriculum to a highly diversified curriculum.

The fact is that the first high schools were started as people's colleges with a diversified curriculum. The first high schools in New York were authorized by a special act of the Legislature passed in 1847. They were the Union School of Lockport which I attended and whose curriculum in the 1880's I described, and the Free Academy of New York City. In support of my contention that the earliest high schools were started as people's colleges, allow me to give in detail the curriculum of the Lockport Union School in 1850, just three years after its foundation.

The curriculum of the Lockport Union School in 1850 with less than 200 students, as quoted by Kandel, was as follows:

Arithmetic
Grammar
Rhetoric
Geometry

Mensuration
Chemistry
Moral and Intellectual Philosophy

Spelling
Writing
History (General & U. S.)
Astronomy
Anatomy & Physiology
Bookkeeping
Reading
Declamation
Drawing
Trigonometry

Civil Engineering
Botany
French
Greek
Geography
Composition
Algebra
Surveying
Natural Philosophy
Latin
German

What is the point of this? Merely to suggest that diversification of curriculum is not necessary proof of progress, whether in the 19th or the 20th century. It depends largely on the reason for the so-called enrichment. What, then, is the primary reason for the increase in the major subjects taught in our high schools as previously cited from 9 in 1890 to 250 in 1935? Is it due to the growth of liberalism, to the freeing of superintendents from the spell of the classical and academic tradition, to the late recognition by them of the educational value of courses in science, in business subjects, industrial and domestic arts, in the fine arts, in the musical arts? Yes, in part, but not to the extent of an increase in major subjects from 9 to 250.

I believe a large part of the increase is due to a panicky rush on the part of superintendents and principals to find something, anything, for the pupils of low learning and less will capacity to do as they come to the high schools in this land by the hundreds of thousands, without mastery of the reading process, of arithmetic or of the

other elementary school subjects. A large part of this increase in subjects taught in the high schools does not, then, represent progress, but debacle. Debacle of leadership, debacle of intelligence, debacle of will, debacle of courage, and especially the last, lack of courage to discover and assign to clearly defined streams from their earliest years, these pupils of such tremendous variations in learning capacity.

Probably never in the history of the race has there been such many-sided secondary educational activity as during the past fifty years. Never within the same limits of time has there been such an increase in the numbers enrolled in our secondary schools; never such changes in curriculum in educational philosophy, in methods of teaching; in educational administration. Not all these changes represent progress.

1. The greatest single advance, I believe, is in some-degree successful attempts to substitute the understanding of principles and processes for the memorizing of facts and the learning how to do things, the solving of problems for mechanical manipulation.
2. The substitution in part of several texts for one, the attempt to arrive at truth by a study of original sources, the encouragement of the critically minded examination of

text and statements from whatever source derived.

3. The rediscovery of the truth that the child is instinctively creative, and that creativeness in all subjects of the secondary field may be developed in varying degrees in all students.
4. That the study of any and every subject may be made to yield disciplinary values when taught and studied with that end in view and, therefore,
5. That the study of certain definite subjects is not necessarily essential to a disciplinary education.
6. The recognition of the very great differences in the learning capacities of pupils and the evolving of reasonably valid processes for detecting these differences.
7. The attempt within narrow limits to adapt subject matter, pace and methods to the varying learning capacity of such pupils.
8. The increased attention paid to bringing about better conditions of health and general physical well-being among the pupils.
9. The greater emphasis on developing appreciation of art and music among all pupils.
10. The realization by a few educators that the education of a pupil is essentially a process of bringing about certain clearly foreseen, definitely planned changes in him.
11. A greater realization of the wisdom of not allowing the economic condition of the family of a child to determine the amount of education he shall receive, and therefore, the enacting of laws for compulsory school attendance and the beginning of making provisions for remedying, at public expense, physical defects which interfere with the pupils' effective education, and of providing food, clothing and transportation for want of which the pupil might not be able to attend school.
12. The provision in ever larger measure as an auxiliary educational agency of extra-curricular activities.
13. The more nearly living salaries now provided for the teaching and supervising force.
14. The larger measure of education required of teachers.
15. The provision of ever more healthful and attractive school buildings.
16. The great growth in the membership of educational associations of all kinds.
17. The development of educational research, due in large measure to the grant of funds by the great foundations.
18. The greater participation by

pupils, through membership in squads, in the administration of the school.

19. The greater freedom and informality in the relations of teachers and pupils in the classroom.

As we realize, in addition to the foregoing, that the students in private schools have increased from 110,797 in 1900 to 269,240 in 1928 and the public high school students from 519,000 in 1900 to 6,000,000 in 1936, and as we think of the really beautiful high school buildings that have been built throughout the country, of the improved economic condition of the teaching force and of the greater degree of education demanded of them, it would seem that these 50 years have been years of the upswing of the educational pendulum.

But there is another side to the picture.

1. It is not altogether true as is so frequently said that the enormous increase in high school enrollment is due to the greater appreciation by pupils and parents of the curricula now offered in the high schools, curricula which do not make such exacting demands on the students. The first great cause is the raising of the compulsory school age at the behest largely of labor leaders and social workers. The second cause is the difficulty of securing employment, not as so frequently alleged

that boys and girls of seventeen cannot be profitably employed in modern industry, but because of the legal impediments to such employment. The third reason is the fallacious doctrine so constantly preached that for every boy of 17, no matter what his learning capacity or his desires, school is a better place for him in which to spend his time than any wage-earning occupation, no matter what the conditions in which he works. At this period in the life of many boys and girls, there is a natural desire for economic independence. At that age, most of them have reached physical maturity, so that under present-day working conditions and hours, they are not likely to be injuriously affected physically by employment. To compel them to remain in school when their interest is elsewhere is to cause large numbers of them to become loafers so that although they entail an even greater cost per capita and interfere with the progress of other boys and girls, they do not profit from their attendance at school.

2. Kandel in his "History of Secondary Education" tells us that "the twentieth century thus opened with the conception of the high school as an institution designed to meet the needs of the pupils attending it and of the public supporting it and ready to offer subjects as they were demanded on the principle that all subjects taught for the same length of time were equal in value."

I am sure that if Professor Kandel were here this evening he would not make that statement. For the high schools, by and large, did not believe and were not willing to offer subjects on the basis of that belief at the opening of the 19th century, that all subjects taught for the same length of time are equal in value. The older subjects in the high schools of the East at least, still had the right of way. By the older subjects, I mean foreign languages, and mathematics, and in less degree, science. To cite a field with which I am familiar, it was not till the 1920's that the teachers of commercial branches commonly believed that the teaching of these subjects could be made to yield disciplinary values commensurate with those of the academic subjects and almost universally the high school principal rates these subjects distinctly inferior in training value to the academic subjects. Historically the statement is not true. But in a much larger sense, it is not true, as President Butler has so frequently reminded us, "It is not true that all subjects taught for the same length of time are equal in value." For me to accept this would necessitate my admitting that a course in bridge would be of equal value to me as a course in current psychologies conducted by an equally competent teacher. The statement would need to be amended to read somewhat as follows to be truthful at all:

Every subject taught equally well by an equally competent teacher for an equal length of time, yields values to some persons equal to those yielded by some other subject to some other person under the same conditions. It must be further remembered that the teachers of the older subjects have, through the centuries, evolved techniques of teaching which they have handed down to their successors, while the teachers of some of the newer subjects have still to perfect their technique.

The fallacy in the principle as quoted by Kandel is one of the chief causes of the present collapse of education in our secondary schools. For since "all subjects taught for the same length of time are equal in value," human nature being what it is, many pupils will naturally choose the subjects which the public opinion of the school reports as making least demand on the pupils.

3. Kandel finds another cause of changing conceptions of secondary education in the contributions of the laboratories of experimental psychology, most notably the contributions of Thorndike, which resulted in the denial of the validity of the doctrine of transfer of training except under the most limited conditions. As Kandel interprets Thorndike: "Disciplinary values, according to this theory, are specific and not general; transfer of training occurs only when there are

present, in two or more subjects of instruction identical elements of content and form."

I believe no educational doctrine promulgated during the fifty years I am discussing has entailed such momentous consequences as this. One of these consequences has been the betterment of educational methods in that we no longer believe that automatic transfer of desirable training is the necessary outcome of the study of certain subjects, irrespective of who studies them, and how he studies them; who teaches them, or how they are taught; and secondly, we have come to realize that we gain a larger measure of transfer in proportion as we plan for transfer.

Another beneficial consequence has been the realization that there is no school subject that cannot be so taught as to yield some measure of disciplinary value, and therefore it is not necessarily wise to limit study by a pupil to just a few subjects, but rather to allow him to acquire discipline through the study of subjects which make a stronger appeal to his existing interests or which fit in better with his life plans.

I have never accepted this doctrine ascribed to Thorndike of specific training and "non-transfer except in the case of the presence of identical elements in the two or more experiences," because it is in conflict with my own experience and I trust my experience rather than principles based on the obser-

vation of the activities of young children and animals. But the truth or fallacy involved in this doctrine ascribed to Thorndike is not my theme. It is the consequences that have followed the acceptance of the thesis.

The general acceptance of this thesis by the New York teachers, especially by those in the public schools, has resulted in an indifference to the centuries' established need of disciplinary training. When coupled with the doctrine that all subjects taught for equal periods of time yield equal value, it has given an alibi to lazy pupils, under an elective system, for choosing easy subjects that make little demands on the higher mental powers and on the time of the pupils. Furthermore, throughout the years, to the extent that teachers have become imbued with the theory of non-transfer, there has resulted a general lowering of standards of achievement and in the quality of work habits. Under the old régime, teachers made pupils believe that what they do and what they understand day by day, inevitably affect their habits and methods of work and so what they will feel and think and do in all the circumstances of life in days to come. But if there is no transfer except where there are identical elements, why worry? No two circumstances in life are ever the same. So this doctrine is a contributing factor to the increasing flabbiness of American education.

It is interesting to note that Professor Judd has never fully accepted this doctrine of slight transfer. He points out in his recent book on "Education and Higher Mental Powers" that Thorndike's contributions to educational psychology have all tended to minimize the higher mental processes and to reduce them to mere quantitative aggregations of the simpler processes. He tells us that "if psychology is to rescue education from the new formalism which consists in devotion to mere acquisition of detached and unorganized facts—if mathematics, the natural sciences and all other school subjects are to be taught by some method other than mere drill—there will have to be clear recognition of the difference between the lower and higher forms of mental activity. The higher forms of experience will have to be emphasized as the true ends to be reached by the processes of education. . . . There must be general recognition of the fact that neural and mental phenomena are products of enormously complex forms of organization."

It makes all the difference in the world whether bookkeeping is taught merely as a system of recording business transactions with the emphasis on drill or whether in addition to this, under the balance sheet conception, it is taught analytically as accounting with the aim, the understanding of the balance sheet as a revelation of the condition of the business, and of

the causes which have produced that condition. Accounting as thus viewed is one of the most disciplinary subjects in the curriculum, potentially capable as a learning experience of inducing growth in the powers of the learner not less than could be gained by this learner by the study of mathematics under an equally competent teacher.

The same may be said of art. As taught years ago largely as an imitation of models, it yielded training rather than disciplinary values, but as taught today, analytically, with its stress on the pupil's own imagination and resulting creativeness, it is one of the most truly disciplinary subjects of the curriculum.

The common interpretation, possibly a mis-interpretation of Thorndike's specific training, S-R bond limited transfer theory has been swallowed whole by the mass of unthinking teachers of our own City of New York and of other cities and has tended to reduce the teaching process with them to the level of animal training.

4. This concept of the nature of the learning process has been abetted in its degenerating influence on teaching by the excessive use of the short answer tests as a substitute for the essay type of examination. There is no doubt that it is a more effective test of what the learner has acquired, in that it can cover within the time limit so much more ground and so lessen the lottery element in an examination. But for that very reason its use in

its various forms encourages memorizing of great numbers of facts and does not of itself lead to the building up of the learning experiences of the student into a system of interrelated ideas which Learned tells us is the very essence of education.

As employed in our high schools generally, the short answer test not of necessity, but as a matter of practice, has become an abetting agency in making our secondary schools, with their programs composed of discrete units and half-units of subject matter, with free selection—in making our high school education still more a "rope of sand." Less and less the high school teachers and principals know to what extent the high school student has grown within a given period. You will all agree with me that neither knowledge gained nor skills acquired constitute the essence of education. Growth is a matter of change, so the education of a given boy is a matter of the extent and intensity of the desirable changes that have been wrought in the student up to the time of taking stock. These elements of growth are the presence in the student of certain definite, desirable qualities, habits and attitudes which should be the supreme objectives of the learning process, but which in the general run of high schools are not even envisioned as objectives of teaching. Among such ear-marks of the truly educated man and, therefore,

the most valid test of the value of the educative process to which he has been subjected, are the presence in him to a detectable degree of open-mindedness, tolerance, an inquiring mind, critical-mindedness, objectivity, the power of analysis, highly developed imagination, appreciation of the beautiful, effective work habits, including the will to perfection of accomplishment, dependability, moral courage, the habit of reflection, social-mindedness.

During the past fifty years, we have recognized that these are the earmarks of the fully grown human. If we have thought about it at all, we must have realized that any one of these qualities, habits, attitudes could have been built up in any one student by educational processes directed to that end; if one quality, then all these characteristics; if in one student, then in all students in varying degrees.

If in the past fifty years, we had gradually evolved schools that could render this service to our nation, then we should have reason as teachers to be proud of our schools and justly proud of ourselves. Never in our history has America so needed men possessed of these characteristics as now. For only such men can save us from the dangers that threaten us as a people. There are so few great men in our national life, no Franklins, except in name, no Jeffersons, no Jacksons, no Lincolns. Our schools could have, should have, produced

such men. Those men were born of discipline, of meditation, of a constant quest for truth, of unconquerable wills, of hard, incessant, intellectual activity.

During the past fifty years under a totally false conception of democracy, in order to give everyone, no matter what his learning capacity, the same educational opportunities as everyone else, we have lessened our demands upon our students in ever increasing measure, till in a majority of the great cities of the country, we have adopted free choice from the bargain-subject-counter, and automatic promotions under the slogan, "Do not give a boy an inferiority complex by allowing him to escape promotion." "Nothing succeeds like success."

During a period when the nature of the child and his needs has been studied as never before, when educational psychology has risen to the first rank, when new teaching methods have been discovered weekly, when teachers have become intensively trained professionals, when everybody goes to school more years than ever before, when every student's achievement and progress can be measured more accurately than ever before, we are sending out each year from our high schools a larger proportion of once potentially able men and women who, at this early age, are merely might-have-beens because from the earliest years till graduation they have never been induced or compelled to work till it hurt.

I have interviewed candidates for Pulitzer candidates for years. I have had boys with an average of 98% in the Regents examinations for the entire four years tell me that they had never studied more than two hours in any day during their high school course. This is what comes from allowing your lower half to set the pace for the upper half. The waste of our superior students is colossal. What excuse have we for allowing our potentially great men to leave us as might-have-beens?

Disciplined minds, the capacity for intensive, long continued effort, the will to the perfect accomplishment are more needed now than fifty years ago when this association held its first meetings and when America's problems were not so acute.

Our schools are doing more things and doing many of them better than they did fifty years ago and they are doing them for a larger proportion of the youth. But how can we boast of our achievements when fully aware as we are of what is needed for the growing of the highly efficient man, instead of grafting on the new to the accumulated educational wisdom of the ages, we discard that experience and under the craven fear of charges of being undemocratic we dump all our pupils into the same hopper? There are still potential Franklins in our 1A grades. They will never be actualized if we continue to put everybody on the same

educational "Relief." Unless we fight about face, regain the thoroughness, the spirit of work, the pride of achievement, the willingness to endure hardness of the students of fifty years ago, we shall not wish by some miracle to be present at the one hundredth anniversary of this association, assuming that this association could survive the decay of the ideals for which it has always stood. But why should you stand idly by and allow the American high school to

continue on the path of aimless drifting? Carrell tells us the characters of the pioneers are still dormant in the youth of today. By a return to a wise system of education, they can be awakened and brought to fullness of life. If America is to be saved, it must first save its embryo great men, for no country has ever been saved by the herd. To lead the way is the task of you younger men.

JOHN L. TILDSLEY.

Retired Associate Superintendent.

THE MENTAL HYGIENIST LOOKS AT THE TEACHER*

In his excellent and illuminating text, "Educating for Adjustment." Harry N. Rivlin devotes fifteen chapters to the problem of the emotional adjustment of the pupil. Chapter XVI, the last chapter, is devoted to a discussion of the mental hygiene of the teacher. By way of explanation Rivlin, in his preface, remarks that "Since the emotional adjustment of the teacher herself is a vital force in modifying the child's emotional adjustment, Chapter XVI discusses the problem of reducing the undesirable and unnecessary emotional strain ordinarily attendant upon teaching and supervision." Despite this logical point of view the reader cannot help being impressed with

* A paper presented in a conference of the faculty of Boys' High School.

the idea that, by virtue of its position and cursory treatment, the chapter on the mental hygiene of the teacher was appended as an afterthought.

C. V. Hobson, in the April issue of "Mental Hygiene," in an article entitled "How Much Do Teachers Know about Mental Hygiene?" states that "Enough teachers show a lack of knowledge in mental hygiene to justify the conclusion that some method should be used to require those who lack information to take some up-to-date training in the subject." Farther on he recommends "That administrators use mental hygiene as a topic for a series of teachers' meetings, thus in a measure bridging the gap for teachers who have not had training in this line, and bringing

abreast of the times the knowledge of those whose training is somewhat out of date."

The mental hygiene of the teacher has not been subjected to the experimental study which it deserves. Consequently, there are many questions for which there are inadequate answers. Rivlin proposes the following exhaustive list of problems:

1. To what extent does the teaching profession attract particular types of personality?

2. Are teachers more susceptible to nervous and emotional disorders than are other members of the general population?

3. Which type of emotional disorders are common among teachers?

4. Does teaching present any special hazards to mental health?

5. Are there any preventive measures of known efficacy that can be adopted?

6. To what extent does the teacher's adjustment influence that of her class?

There is no doubt that a thorough program of research is necessary in order to attain a better understanding of the problems involved in the teacher's mental hygiene.

Frances V. Mason in an article in "Mental Hygiene" entitled "A Study of Seven Hundred Maladjusted School Teachers" arrived at the following conclusions:

1. The psychoses most prevalent

in the group were dementia praecox and manic-depressive psychoses. Paranoia seemed to rank higher in the teacher group than among maladjusted people generally.

2. Teaching as a profession did not seem to be the direct cause of these psychoses.

3. Since heredity seems to be an important factor in the development of psychoses, some consideration should be given to family history in the selection of prospective teachers, especially at this time when the country has such a large surplus.

4. There was a higher percentage of unmarried teachers than of married ones, 61 per cent of the men and 81 per cent of the women being unmarried. This is not surprising in the case of women since the majority of women school teachers are unmarried.

5. In view of the fact that physical disorders, in many cases not due directly to school work, were found in a large percentage of the group it would seem that more attention might be given to that phase of a teacher's life—that more provision might be made for leave of absence and even in some cases compulsory leave.

6. In diversity of interests and in the possession of those traits that make for a well-rounded personality this group of teachers was particularly lacking. School systems could be of assistance here by giving teachers more leisure for out-

side activities and freedom from too strenuous duties in the classroom, so that fatigue would not interfere with physical activities after school hours.

7. An intellectual status of above the average was not effective in producing emotional control, as evidenced by the large number of difficulties arising from problems of sex.

8. The educational preparation of the group was of a fairly high order, the institutions represented including some of our outstanding universities. It is fair to assume, therefore, that the education received even in our institutions of high merit is not of the type to help the student overcome hereditary predispositions toward maladjustment.

Without doubt the profession of teaching presents certain peculiar hazards for the attainment of mental health. For purposes of discussion these problems of the teacher may be conveniently grouped into four categories, namely, those arising out of the teacher's personality, those arising out of the teacher-pupil relationship, those arising out of the teacher-supervisor relationship, and those arising out of the teacher-public relationship. It is inevitable that there should be some overlapping among these four groups of problems. Nevertheless, let us attempt to consider each separately.

PROBLEMS ARISING OUT OF THE TEACHER'S PERSONALITY

One of the most serious of the teacher's difficulties is directly related to his temperament. Investigations reveal that experienced teachers, on the average, exhibit a greater degree of introversion than do new entrants to the profession. There are two possible explanations for this circumstance. Either extraverts find teaching unpleasant and leave it for other types of work or the teaching profession may exaggerate the introversion tendency of its members. It is likely that success in teaching requires introverted traits. The teacher himself must be the example for his room, and in most schools the teacher experiences for several hours each day the necessity of outward constraint and the development of habits of introversion. The schools themselves are awakening to a realization of the inherent healthiness of the extraverted temperament. One can note a growing tendency to let children do things. The whole activity program is in part an effort at providing easy releases for the inner life of the individual.

Excessive self-criticism is a factor which often serves as an obstacle to the attainment of mental health. Like most intelligent persons the teacher is likely to be too self-critical. Such annoying questions as "Am I successful?", "Why don't my pupils like me?", and "Why can't I earn a promotion?"

easily lead to unnecessary self-reproach. Self-criticism is useful only when it serves as an incentive for self-correction. Teachers must be willing to admit their own limitations and strive to adjust their ambition to their abilities. A wholesome personality cannot be developed by worrying or by undue self-analysis.

A distorted sense of values can easily be acquired by the teacher who is not wary. Because he is free from the challenge of constant criticism, the teacher may develop points of view that are unjustifiable. One who spends so much time with children may grow arrogant and domineering. It is so easy to become accustomed to instant and unconditional obedience that one begins to expect such behavior from almost everyone at all times. Some teachers always feel that they are being imposed upon. Why should their class registers be so large? Why are disciplinary cases sent to them? Why are they always given the slow class? The teacher's social life should be an effective safeguard against such pettiness. He should get away from school and school children whenever possible and learn how other people of intelligence and discrimination view the school's standards.

The lack of a hobby is a serious hindrance to the development of a well-rounded personality. There are many teachers who dread terribly the day when they must stop teach-

ing. It is simply a matter of looking at the laying down of one's professional work as a sort of happy release for that little special corner of life that is all one's own. Develop a hobby! The quintessence of life is to be a follower doing what others do, living as they live, yet having also a little place in life where one is the leader.

A wholesome feeling of success will serve as a bulwark to the teacher's mental health. But success in this connection does not mean notoriety or wide acclaim. To the teacher it should mean simply the feeling at times that his position in the school is being filled by him in a little different way than it could be filled by anyone else in the world.

PROBLEMS ARISING OUT OF THE TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIP

It is disillusioning to sit in a principal's office and see how unimportant are many of the offenses for which children have been excluded from class. Teachers must not become indifferent to children's misconduct, but they must never forget that when a pupil heads his paper incorrectly, or goes up a "down" stairway, or writes on his desk top, or fails to do his homework, that these need not indicate moral lapses. Adopting the progressive point of view, by focusing attention on the child instead of on the curriculum, will

assist the teacher to view pupils as individuals.

The teacher who regards his work merely as a job soon finds that it is monotonous and presents no challenge. The teaching that follows may be satisfactory when judged by the usual standards of supervisors, but it is unsatisfactory because it does not contribute to the teacher's growth. Various devices are resorted to by teachers for relieving the monotonous aspects of teaching. Some discard their lesson plans at the end of each term. Others change their approach each semester. Such devices will not stimulate growth unless they are accompanied by a desire for growth. The person who teaches children instead of subjects never lacks challenge, for pupils differ from term to term, and their personalities grow from day to day.

As a direct result of the physical and emotional strain involved in teaching children even the most stolid teacher may find himself becoming annoyed and irritable. Persons who are tense and high strung suffer still more. The teacher should plan his day's work so that he has periods of comparative relaxation. The lunch period and other recess periods should not be spent in doing clerical work. Teachers must learn to break up the routine of the day with some sort of relaxing activity or inactivity. It is unfortunate when an inadequate salary and burdensome

obligations necessitate the holding of an additional job after school hours.

The true solution necessitates guiding the overtense teacher out of the profession. It is unfair to discharge a teacher whose nervousness is due to his sacrifice to his work. A school must view this condition as an occupational disease and should provide for retirement on a disability pension rather than for discharge as an incompetent. Frequently a teacher who is uneasy and unhappy is one situation improves noticeably when he is shifted to another school, or to another type of work. A more hopeful approach lies in the licensing of new entrants. Boards of Education must exercise their prerogative of selection not merely to determine the scholastic attainment of the prospective teacher, but also his emotional balance.

PROBLEMS ARISING OUT OF THE TEACHER-ADMINISTRATOR RELATIONSHIP

The administrative mechanism of a school sometimes assumes an exaggerated importance. Schools are administered as though this aspect of the educational structure is most important. To make matters worse, educators seem to believe that the intelligence needed to plan school programs is of a higher type than that required by the teaching process. Thus, the more distant is the relationship to the child, the greater is the remuneration. Class-

room teachers receive less than chairmen, chairmen less than principals, and superintendents are paid highest of all. As a result, the more capable teacher is led to seek advancement outside the classroom. The process of pupil adjustment is derogated to a secondary position.

Teachers, unfortunately, are to a great degree on the defensive. In recent years there has developed over them an overwhelming weight of supervision, which for most systems means criticism. The running of the school should be a coöperative enterprise in which teacher and supervisor work together. Failure on the part of children in the class must be regarded as a school problem and should not be interpreted as being solely the result of teacher inefficiency. Visits to the classroom must not be entirely for the purpose of rating teachers. In the conference between teacher and supervisor that follows, the attitude of the teacher is akin to that of the child who is about to be reprimanded. The whole atmosphere of the visit is wrong since it assumes that it is the supervisor's duty to evaluate teachers rather than to assist them.

The supervisor must be mindful of the need for respecting the teacher's personality. Supervisors like teachers tend to take faithful work for granted. As a result, most of the criticism that comes from the supervisor is likely to be

adverse. The teacher thus gets a false impression of having failed and of being unappreciated. The supervisor must be as ready to commend as he is to censure. He must at all times be tactful and considerate of the teacher's sensitivities. A teacher should never be rebuked in the presence of a pupil or a parent. Even when the teacher is wrong it is often possible to explain the case to the parent from the teacher's point of view. There will be time enough later for the supervisor to confer with the teacher.

In the interests of better teaching, supervisors ought to seize every opportunity for easing the teacher's burden. It is unfortunate that, for one reason or another, the worst classes and assignments are frequently given to beginning teachers. From the standpoint of immaturity and inadequate experience these persons are least able to cope with such assignments. The amount of clerical and routine work required of the teacher should be reduced to a minimum to allow sufficient leisure time for the cultivation of outside interest. Teachers can recall many days when they did not have one minute of free time from the moment they entered the school building in the morning to the moment they left at the end of the school day—with at least one set of papers to be graded at home before the following morning.

PROBLEMS ARISING OUT OF THE COMMUNITY ATTITUDE TOWARD TEACHERS

Public opinion regarding teachers is in sore need of rehabilitation. The current attitude concerning teachers held by a substantial portion of our population is that a teacher is an irritable, ill-humored individual, quick to take offense, unsympathetic both to child and to parent, given to temperamental outbursts, and relying upon his authority to dominate children whom he inwardly despises. It is useless for the profession to argue that this is not the case with a great majority of teachers.

The question of the teacher's salary is a touchy subject for both teachers and laymen. School systems get as good teachers as they pay for. The citizenry must be taught that the teacher's salary is not a gift, the size to be determined by their generosity. Furthermore, the teacher must not be humiliated by the tax-payer's constant reminder that it is they who are supporting his position. A teacher's salary should be sufficient to enable him to maintain a satisfactory standard of living without the necessity of working outside of the classroom.

Permanent tenure is vital to the well-being of the teacher. A teacher must have the reassurance that so long as he does his duty conscientiously he will be unaffected by changes in the municipal administration. Permanent tenure

need not imply the retention of the incompetent. Legal means for removing such teachers are always available. It should mean, however, that the teacher is free to give his thoughts and energy to his students, knowing that only demonstrated incompetence or other serious dereliction will be considered grounds for removal, and then only after he has been given the opportunity of presenting his side of the case.

Social taboos operate against teachers almost as consistently as they do against clergymen. Any attempt on the teacher's part to satisfy the needs and the wishes of his personality is frowned upon if it goes counter to the standards of even a small part of the community. Provided that the teacher does not go to ridiculous or unjustifiable extremes, his personal habits should be determined by himself. The community has the right to regulate the official life of its teachers, but it has no right to interfere with their personal life when that has no direct or indirect effect on the school.

CONCLUSION

From the foregoing discussion one can conclude that teachers are themselves people and that mental health for them is probably no different from mental health for anyone else. The attainment of mental health becomes to a great extent a personal affair, to be

worked out by each individual. Little advance will be made in the mental hygiene program of public education until the teacher shall become aware of the signi-

ficance of applied mental hygiene, and shall himself be a living example of good mental hygiene.
JOSEPH SELKOWE,
Boys High School.

NEW TYPE CONFERENCES AT THE JAMES MONROE HIGH SCHOOL

"Tired with all these, for restful death I cry" moans Shakespeare in the sonnet, and we echo his cry, we teachers who must give up precious Monday afternoons to hear an uninspired guest speaker or to listen to routine announcements that could be made public more painlessly in some other way. I do not intend to charge Monroe with being particularly culpable in the matter of conferences. It is because I have taught in many schools and have repeatedly been bored, even distressed at conferences, that I appreciate the plan followed at Monroe.

THE PLAN

A subject of general interest to the school is chosen by the Chairman of Conferences in conjunction

with the Principal. This subject is picked from a long list of possibilities submitted by the teachers of the various departments. The General topic is then subdivided into seven phases, and seven teachers are asked to act as discussion leaders, each one conducting his panel in a separate room. There is no magic in the number seven. We need at least that number of rooms to accommodate our teachers comfortably. Mimeographed notices of the subject and of the panels are distributed among all teachers well in advance of the conference to give all an opportunity to choose and to think. The announcement of the November 15, 1937 conference indicates the general pattern of the preparation.

JAMES MONROE HIGH SCHOOL

November 3, 1937.
Conference Bulletin.

GENERAL FACULTY CONFERENCE

Monday, November 15, 1937
Auditorium, 3:15 P.M.

Subject: How can and should guidance operate in our school with its present staff and its present equipment?
Introductory Remarks
Discussion by Panels
Panel 1. What can and should the section officer do?
Chairman, Mr. Seelenfreund

Dr. Hein
The Faculty

Panel 2. What can and should the recitation teacher do?
Chairman, Miss Saltzberg

Panel 3. What can and should the Grade Advisers do?
Chairman, Miss Berenson

Panel 4. What can and should the Deans do?
Chairman, Miss Cashen

Panel 5. What can and should the Guidance Office do?
Chairman, Dr. Hausle

Panel 6. What can and should the Health Departments do?
Chairman, Miss Ryan

The selection of panels and assignment of rooms for those panels will be effected by the same procedure which obtained at the October conference. Members of the faculty are asked to consider the phases of the question listed above in advance, so that they may be prepared to indicate their choice of panel promptly, and so that they may be prepared to make their contribution at such panel. It is suggested that each teacher be prepared with a second choice, in case his first choice should meet an unwieldy preponderance of elec-

tion among the faculty.

The bell schedule for the day will be the same as was in effect for the day of the October conference, which was, in effect, that of the P.M. Assembly day, with a section officer's period interpolated between the ninth period and that immediately preceding it.

Approved:

HENRY E. HEIN,
Principal.

GEO. D. HUNCKE,
Chairman,
Faculty Conferences.

The faculty convenes in one body in the Auditorium meeting as a unit just long enough to hear a very brief presentation of the subject. The presiding officer, then, in informal fashion, calls for those interested in the first panel and assigns them to a room under the guidance of the Panel Leader. All panels are called in similar fashion.

The Panel Leader appoints a secretary who takes full notes pre-

ferably stenographic. These notes become the basis of a digest of the proceedings which the Leader himself makes: From this point on, two types of procedure have been followed. Where the subject warrants further discussion, at the succeeding conference of the entire faculty, the seven Panel Leaders each present an oral report. The second method consists of the Panel Leader submitting to the Principal a written digest of the

proceedings of his panel. The Principal then prepares a necessarily long integrated digest of all panels. This composite picture is mimeographed and presented to the teachers with the request that they write the Principal about a practical way of adopting any one of the suggestions which has been found by the teacher particularly desirable. Based on these suggestions of the teachers, the Principal prepares his final report, which also finds its way into the hands of the teachers to be put into practice wherever possible. I cite the Principal's final report on our conference of October 1937.

JAMES MONROE HIGH SCHOOL
November 10, 1937

Suggestions made by teachers as a follow-up of Panel Discussions on School Spirit. At present I list only those that can be put into practice at once. Others will be sent you at the appropriate time.

1. *Develop proper attitude toward G. O. drive for membership by proper teacher attitude.* Let each teacher buy the first G. O. booklet in his class. Have you bought yours?
2. *Advertise not only high scholarship, but show appreciation of improvements made.* Pupils with low marks who have raised themselves. Section officers and recitation teachers, please note. Post lists in class on bulletin

board. Send to Mr. Wilkes excellent work for display.

3. *Organize help classes for bright and ambitious students.* Who will volunteer? There should be someone in each department.
4. *Raise the tone of the school by stressing neat appearance in dress.* Health Education Departments, section officers, recitation teachers, faculty advisers of clubs, etc., please note.
5. *Encourage and develop the personal touch amongst parents, teacher and pupil: class letters to absentees: personal letter from teacher to parent or pupil (inquiry, congratulations, condolence, not complaints).*
6. *Promote school spirit by having teachers set the right example in following school regulations: Traffic, gossiping at fire drills: smoking in or near the building: presenting good examples of certain personal qualities such as neatness, promptness, consideration, conscientiousness, good manners, emotional control, unselfishness, fair play.*
7. *Emphasize value of extra curricular activities by having teacher manifest real concern and interest in such activities, e.g., by occasionally attending school affairs such as athletic*

games, dances, philanthropic drives, club meetings: encouraging cordial social contacts between faculty and student body and having the teacher grow to be a leader liked by the class and then using his position to influence the students along the line of school spirit.

HENRY E. HEIN,
Principal.

ADVANTAGES OF THE PLAN

A small discussion group offers every stimulus to the teacher for a real exchange of thought, for evaluating ideas with a view to finding a solution. Quite obviously, the opportunity for participation is increased at least sevenfold, there being seven panels. Experience shows that more than seven times the number of teachers who previously participated now do so. The panel leaders are usually classroom teachers, not chairmen. It is quite natural to feel that the supervisor comes before a group with a problem that he has already thought out—with some pet scheme perhaps. You are freed from the mental block to discussion arising from the situation just mentioned when the leader of the panel is a class teacher. Even if he has a plan in mind, not being in a position to execute this plan, your reactions, whether agreements or objections, are bound to be accepted as free from self interest.

I have witnessed teachers taking active part in a panel discussion, who throughout the whole of their teaching at Monroe have never risen once in the Auditorium to say a word. It may be that they are over-modest; it may be that they are over-conscious of the presence of authority; it may be that they lack the voice volume to talk audibly in a huge auditorium. Whatever the cause, discussion in panels has elevated these teachers from passivity to a activity. It would be presumptuous of me to explain at length to an audience of teacher-readers that participating in an enterprise makes one enjoy that undertaking. The teacher feels that his idea is getting personal attention; it appears on the official digest; it may eventually be adopted as part of the school procedure: The teacher feels he is no longer a cog in the wheel; he has a responsibility toward the growth of the school; he feels himself a living part of a living organization. Haven't we somewhere heard this method of functioning called "Democracy in education?"

I have enjoyed the privilege of being Panel Leader at all of our panel conferences. The teachers have been tremendously interested both in speaking and in listening. There has been no clock-watching, nor have any killing glances been hurled at the speaker who dared to ask a question at four o'clock. Although no official time was ever

set for adjournment, no panel has ever left before four-thirty, and any number have stayed after five. True, several teachers reading this article may be the very ones who asked me how late I intended to "keep" my panel. They know, then, that I made answer to all that I had no designs on keeping anyone; that the panel would last as long as the discussion sustained itself naturally; that I would make no promises of early adjournment. Like all people on the planet Earth, I, too, have my frailties and it pleased me to look to see if these teachers did eventually choose my panel. And I looked deliberately to see if they were bored. They were just as interested as all the other teachers! They forgot that they had been in a hurry and stayed to enjoy themselves. Let us not blame them for retaining the memory of an old thought pattern

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES: A CIVILIZING FORCE

The Modern Foreign Languages Study organized in 1924 has given great impetus to the consideration of the outcomes of instruction in that field. Another factor which has had a distinct influence on the emphasis of objectives is the change in the composition of secondary classes since the World War. Generally speaking, instead of having adolescents drawn from a social group with a fairly unified back-

with relation to conferences.

I have taught in many schools throughout my career. Very rarely have I heard anyone refer to a conference once it was over. The general feeling was (to continue in the mood of the Shakespeare sonnet).

"Tired with all these, from these would I be gone." With the panel conferences, however, activity continues beyond the conference day. I find notes in my letter-box, teachers stop me in transit, discussions are continued at lunch. And honestly! Teachers apologize to me for not attending my panel explaining that they wished to be with me, but that they thought it wiser to attend a panel which was discussing something with which they were unfamiliar so that they could learn something!!!

GERALDINE SALTZBERG.
James Monroe High School.

ground in our secondary schools, we now have students from heterogeneous social group. This changed secondary school population necessitates changes in the emphasis given to objectives.

For a limited number, modern foreign language study will continue to stress the practical traditional aim. These students will probably pursue college or professional courses and embrace callings

such as journalism or research, which require the practical use of foreign languages.

To the many, modern foreign languages may offer emotional training to a degree that may be found in probably very few other secondary subjects. Vicariously the student may be brought to realize that foreign people have to solve fundamentally the same problems as we—securing food, shelter, clothing. However, the foreigner may follow different patterns in satisfying his basic needs. Since the ability to place oneself in the shoes of another is more the result of an emphasis on emotional rather than rational processes, we may reasonably assume that the modern foreign language teacher is probably better equipped to produce the emotional experience in his pupils. The teacher himself must have a deep-seated respect and sympathy for the foreign people whose language he is teaching before he can arouse the emotions in others.

This idea, well organized and consistently applied, will result in a powerful force towards world peace. If the study of language were to realize nothing else but this idea, it would have its justification for being. With the post-war world rent by prejudice and fear and resounding with tramping feet, the proper organization and presentation of modern foreign languages will contribute materially to the salvation of mankind.

A profusion of materials, visual and oral, present themselves for developing an understanding, sympathy, and respect for the foreign nation. The problem lies not in procuring material, but in developing progressively the emotional attitudes of the students. By its very nature, the process should be a gradual and informal process. Sufficient time should be afforded the students to react to the material at hand. Their opinion should be accepted for the time being. The teacher should warily avoid the temptation to foist his adult opinions upon the students. The essential point is to arouse a voluntary reaction and built upon that. Considerable patience and successive representations will tend toward more refined emotions and more desirable attitudes. By keeping in the background, the instructor can, in this way, deftly guide youth to higher and nobler ideals.

Thus far, no mention has been made of the effect of such training upon the attitude of the native-born of many generations toward the foreigner in our midst, and the native-born of the first generation toward his foreign parents. The latter will learn to understand sympathetically the so-called peculiar ways of their progenitors. Many foreign-born parents will not look askance upon the school, which will seem no longer to tend to separate them from their beloved ones. Thus, the civilizing influences will act as a cementing bond

in developing a unified American nation. In addition, the pupil will develop a civic-mindedness which transcends all parochial boundaries, and reaches out from the community to the four corners of the earth.

To make the cultural materials more productive of results, they should also be organized from the point of view of integration. This new tendency stresses the organization of the curriculum to foster the social growth of the whole child according to his social needs. Modern foreign languages offer a rich field for integration. The Chairmen of the various high school subjects can coöperate in drawing up a syllabus which will indicate the topics and the methods of awarding credits for work done in other subjects. The work in the foreign language course can be correlated with that in every other field. With the social sciences, foreign language has in common such topics as: "The Early Settlements of European Nations in America." The foreign language teacher teaches about the foreign composers whose masterpieces may be heard or sung in the music class. In the foreign language course the student becomes acquainted with the outstanding scientists and inventors, the principles of whose discoveries are explained in detail and tested in the science laboratory. Courses integrated in this way offer to the student unified functional knowledge which has a higher immediate transfer value

than that offered by the traditional course. They tend to arouse more interest, thereby making for better retention. They increase the number of concepts which, in turn, leads to more accurate thinking.

The study of modern foreign languages may make another significant contribution by helping this nation to spend wisely its non-working hours in pleasurable recreation. The tendency of industry is toward a reduced number of working hours. What is to be done profitably with the ever-increasing free time? Prof. Walter V. Kaulfers has made a significant study on extra-curricular activities which may solve the problem. He found that his students engaged in 36 activities: reading foreign news items and foreign books in translation, attending recitals by foreign artists and exhibitions of foreign painters and sculptors, seeing foreign films, belonging to international societies, listening to foreign radio programs and phonograph records.

As foreign language teachers, we must not rely on chance to yield lasting results in leisure-activities. Provision should be made for organization and early initiation on the cause. Participation in leisure-activities in language study should go hand in hand throughout. This will provide the time for the numerous repetitions required to make participation in any activity a fixed habit. In addition, the leisure activities must be made

an integral part of the course, so that students will not regard them as optional. If we award definite credit for participation, it will help to develop the proper attitude towards them on the part of students. The syllabus in foreign language study should provide ample time for initiation and constant practice. The latter should be a part of the

classroom recitation and take on the form of reports and discussions.

Thus, modern foreign languages may be, if properly organized and taught, a potent force in molding the lives of the adolescents in our secondary schools.

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WHEN AND WHY ARE LEARNERS "SLOW LEARNERS?"

Educationists have maintained that a course of study is organized to achieve the objectives of a curriculum which, in turn, is established to realize life goals. Psychologists have tried to show that learning activities in the secondary schools should be more concerned with the adjustment of the pupils to the world in which they live than to the teaching of subject-matter as such. Mental hygienists have pointed out the social values inherent in wholesome, integrated personalities. With all of this expert guidance and counsel at our command, why is it that theory and practice are not one and the same when we evaluate both in terms of pupil progress and pupil achievement? When pupils do not measure up to our artificial standards, shall we consider them as misfits, or shall we look for the misfit in the course of study, the text-books or the teachers?

From time to time articles have been published concerning the problem of the slow learner. A committee at Seward Park High School has been working on a ninety-one page report entitled: "First Draught of a Course of Study for Slow Learners in English." The members of this committee contend that since English is a "tool" subject and since no subject which uses the language can be mastered unless English itself is mastered, it is necessary that all teachers of the slow learners be English teachers. This committee would place emphasis on speech rather than written work and permit the use of slang and colloquialisms, within the limits of good taste. The activities for each term of English are to be built around such central themes as Health and the Community. Literary masterpieces of the past are to be supplanted by current books.

The committee reports the following as characteristics of the "slow learner:"

. . . In general they find him lacking in self-reliance; impulsive in action; slow in grasping abstractions and prone to anti-school and anti-teacher attitudes; he shows limited capacity for concentrated activity; a need for lavish praise, and interests in the immediate present. . .

Among others, this committee report has one outstanding feature to its credit. It serves to focus attention on the lack of adjustment between the school as a social agency and the pupil as a functioning individual in the established social order. From kindergarten through college we label individual reactions to the planned tasks which we compel them to work, study or play at. We give tests and final marks that spell success or failure for each one. When pupils fail, we may attribute the failure to low intelligence or other innate factors. We do not take time to weigh the effects of repressions, inferiority feelings, discouraging home conditions or deviated personality traits. We cannot believe that lack of interest and poor scholarship may be due to a school environment that sets up situations which do not click with the wants, interests and needs of the individual pupil. We overlook the fact that it may be a healthful sign for our personality development if at times we become impulsive, desire

immediate results, look for praise or decide to be anti-this or pro-that.

It is not clear whether these slow groups are what they are because of a lack of native intelligence or an undeveloped degree of the particular intelligence required to complete the assigned tasks of the school, or because of an emotional set born of continued failure to compete satisfactorily with other members of the group. Poor intellectual habits may be due to our inability to quicken individual interests to give natural expression to their drives and talents. The serious problem for the academic and vocational schools to consider in relation to the slow learners is to ascertain whether the school program is developing permanent associations and mind sets for or against organized society. Failure, discontent and lack of adjustment in school may have a bearing on the lowered age levels of the inmates in our penal institutions.

Are these well-planned English courses for slow learners administrative devices used to overcome difficulties in the present teaching situation, or are they planned as useful activities calculated to integrate socially, physically, emotionally and spiritually the personality of the individual? In setting up such courses the academic high schools may be placing themselves on the defensive when the following factors are considered: (1) Superintendent Johnson of Chicago

is planning to make 80 per cent of the high school courses vocational in nature, because, as he says, "Thousands of pupils are being turned out with nothing that fits them to earn a living"; (2) Dr. William S. Gray of the University of Chicago states that the secondary schools must assume responsibility for a vigorous improved reading program due to the fact that 25 per cent of the entering pupils are "crippled readers"; (3) It is difficult to establish valid and reliable measuring sticks to determine why some are slow learners; (4) It may be difficult to prove that the shifting of emphasis in the proposed English courses will be adequate to eliminate or reduce the causes of slow learning; (5) English courses may not motivate interests that meet the felt need of the individual; (6) Every teacher of English is not equipped to correct speech faults and defects.

The problem of the slow learner continues to grow involved as increased numbers flow into the high schools. Because of the fact that the vocational horizon has widened in all directions, the secondary school must become a selective agency for different social and economic purposes to help industrialists select workers for well-defined ability-patterns. Industry continues to provide a diversity of functions for a variety of talents within the fifteen thousand occupations representing about twenty thousand job titles. The secondary school must

face the problem of fitting the pupil somewhere in society as a wage earner. Guidance programs are needed to give adequate analyses of the different job levels in order to match individual talents with the requirements of the job. If we must specialize in English, we should supplement the English course with manual and motor training adaptability. Just when and where does the academic or vocational high school offering reach the point of diminishing returns for the individual classed as a "slow learner?" We go on planning functional, vital courses of study in terms of better citizenship, harmonious mental and physical well-being and social-mindedness, even though we believe that there are no generalized habits and that transfer effects are small. English teachers, in particular, are painfully aware that something has "gone haywire" with the acquired language habits of the individual. If we can picture each pupil as a many-sided individual, we should hesitate to label him as slow because of his failure to reach a subject standard. If we lay plans to set up habits, skills or storehouses of factual information without seeing the larger individual patterns, we are certain to weave a tangled web of uncertain values and outcomes, because we are fouling the laws of learning as applied to human learning. Anti-teacher and anti-school attitudes may develop when the learning situation

presents patterns that do not square with individual native or acquired habit and attitude characteristics. The zero hour is approaching when we fail to satisfy the somewhat vague but real longings of even the so-called slow learner. Real learning is not so much the resultant of what we give out to the individual as it is the reaction and expression that result from the impression.

Experimental evidence does not prove that socialized programs meet the real needs any better than the present subject arrangement of courses does. It does seem that pupils make better progress if they gain insight and understanding and if they can visualize a satisfactory end-state. While these patient English teachers are trying to satisfy the needs of the adolescents at the base of the educational pyramid, will the situation be real or artificial and will the learning that takes place under these conditions consist of temporary or permanent associations? Will these adolescents be better prepared to face the realities of the social and occupational world after they have been exposed to six or eight terms of special English Classes? Will they become less non-academically minded and will they lose their anti-school and anti-teacher attitudes? I wonder!

A possible solution may be worked out if we can translate our present teaching programs into terms of vocational adjustment as well as information and factual

knowledge. Society expects the school to make it easier for pupils to adjust themselves on some occupational level that is satisfactory to them and productive to society. Academic, technical and vocational high schools all have important parts to play in developing well-rounded individuals because conditions outside the school have imposed implied if not tacit responsibility on the school for adequate training, placement and follow-up. But if one school is to play a lone hand it should accept the responsibility as a "Terminal School," as suggested by Dr. Franklin J. Keller in the *Journal of the American Vocational Association* for May, 1937, in an article entitled: "Guidance Amid Technological Complexity and Social Frustration." The author goes on to say:

The real fact is that a vast majority of schools do not feel any responsibility for the vocational adjustment of their pupils. The elementary schools and, in increasing measure, the junior and senior high schools, are too remote from the problem. They give "general education in preparation for later vocational education" which will enable the pupil later to learn the job on the job. They do not conceive of their institutions as terminal schools.

This article clearly and forcefully shows how academic and vocational high schools may set up an educational program that can

spell defeat and failure as surely as it can bring self-confidence and success. Dr. Keller refers to terminal schools as the last ones attended and from which the pupils were graduated or were dropped out for good. This thought is most significant when we consider these new courses that are being planned for the non-academically minded pupils with intelligence quotients ranging from 75 to 90 in the academic high schools. The lasting social worth of the school will not be in terms of the emphasis that is being placed on the use of modern slang or on the substitution of current books for literary masterpieces, unless these changes fit into the ability patterns of the individual and assist him to take his place as a functioning unit in the community in which he lives. If the pupil carries away something from these classes that he makes use of in his leisure moments, if he is better adjusted vocationally because of the information or skills learned, and if he gives evidence of emotional control and mental growth, then can we say that the courses centered around English as a core subject have demonstrated a practical value for slow learners, or for that matter, all learners.

It seems logical to assume that the teacher of English should play an important part in the development of habits of correct usage, but have all teachers of English been trained to correct speech defects? Will such courses provide

real interests and can they satisfy the desire for economic security? We learn because of the interplay of environmental forces and urges and drives that are constantly working for or against us. Learning is neither effectual nor economical when negative mind sets are stimulated through specific methods that are annoying and unsatisfactory,—especially in the case of the slow learner. If we are to continue with such special classes for six or eight terms, where shall we draw the line to mark the self-reliant from the others, the impulsive and slow from the steady and rapid, and the varying number of individuals who have great capacity from those with little capacity for concentrated attention? It seems logical to assume that even in cultural classes, differences in mechanical aptitudes are quite as important as differences in intelligence are. When we consider the fact that it is difficult to keep any semblance of homogeneity for more than one or two factors in any one class, we can readily see the difficulties involved in choosing the right teacher to teach the right things at the right time to the right pupils. With slow pupils in particular, the refinements in the use of word-forms cannot remain effective unless they appeal to something more than the intellectual side—they must be in terms of personal attitudes and emotional behavior to have a use value. Otherwise, we must expect the skewed instead of the bell-shaped

achievement curve in our classes.

It is no longer tenable to expect the same degree of application or learning from individuals of varying abilities, and for this reason a uniform and predetermined curriculum may fail to bring even optimum results. We have not yet succeeded in devising a system of teaching that can create additional brain cells, or change or modify existing brain structure; neither have we been able to force factual acquisition or skill mastery, but we can work along with individual interests and aptitudes. Whenever we force an individual to move from one learning situation level to another, before he is ready for the move, we place insurmountable difficulties in his path and he does not evaluate what he is doing. It may be possible that "slow learners" have a just cause of action against us because we have tried to maintain mass standards of academic instruction to the detriment of their personality development and against social interests that spell adjustment for them. Individual capacities and ability patterns cannot be accurately determined without a complete program of testing and guidance that will give a true picture of the whole individual.

The problem of the slow learner cannot be solved by any one social agency or by any one school. Modern social and industrial changes have forced the school to

assume additional tasks in relation to helping individuals fit in on some occupational level. Again, this responsibility must be shared by academic, technical and vocational schools alike in the interest of the individual. The splendid schools system of New York City provides opportunities for individuals on all points of the scale from the lowest to the highest. But difficulties arise when we try to determine which is the right school for this or that individual. It may be socially desirable for the heads of the secondary schools to call a round table discussion concerning their common problems and make plans that will crystallize a form of "shared responsibility" for the success or failure of every individual who comes to them for guidance, training and direction.

It would be interesting to know the extent to which the habitual levels of speech of slow learners have been raised because of Special English courses. It may be necessary for every future worker to be familiar with the ideas and forms of the English language insofar as these may be considered "tools" necessary to meet practical linguistic and reading situations in out-of-school life. Beyond that it may be difficult to maintain a course for slow learners with English as the spearhead, unless we provide activities that combine manual and mental skills.

Would it not be better to place these so-called "slow learners" in a different educational environment, where they can engage in wholesome activities in their natural setting? In this way the school will be adjusting itself to individual interests, abilities and attitudes. With such a plan the secondary school will be in a better position to set up diagnostic and remedial measures, correct learning situations and sympathetic follow-up procedures. In this way we may be able to change the course of habit patterns that labeled the individual as "slow" by substituting activities that permit him to feel and experience the joy of creative self-expression on a success level that is satisfactory to him and in a measure productive to society.

In conclusion, if the academic high schools, in particular, are organizing special classes for "slow learners" it would seem expedient for them to move slowly with their plans until they have had opportunity to (1) provide an adequate system of guidance; (2) determine objectively whether the problems are medical, social or educational; (3) discover the need for a combination of manual and mental skill activities; (4) study the voca-

tional interests and mechanical aptitudes of the pupils in these special classes; (5) evaluate the cultural courses in terms of the social origins of the pupils, the types of jobs they may hold eventually and the use-value of the subject matter to them; (6) and, study the needs of the learners in terms of the opportunities offered in the different types of secondary schools and the possibilities of shifting them to the educational environment that will be most conducive to success, happiness, efficiency and social usefulness. Through such procedures the secondary schools will be in better position to provide planned tasks in learning situations that tend to spell growth of the whole individual, including the physical, intellectual and emotional phases. In the final analysis, all of us are primarily interested in enabling the pupils to form success patterns in the home, school, industry and community. Through different means we are working toward the same goals—character development, good citizenship, occupational adjustment and personality integration.

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WOULD YOU?

Would you drive a car with a "knock"? Would you fly a plane with an engine that kept "missing"? No? Then why attempt to teach a class of pupils in which there are many cases of remediable defects, very likely the cause of much of your anguish? Did you know that restless Ralph is mischievous because he is seated in the back of the room, precluding any possibility of hearing very distinctly? Loss of interest plus a naturally active mind equals trouble. How about petulant Patricia persistently peering from the first row, fourth seat? Poor child, she tries so hard but gets nowhere! And absentee Albert who, during his infrequent visits to school, shows signs of a keen intellect?

What would the harassed teacher give to be able to do away with these problems? Rather, what should the poor pedagogue do for these persistently piteous performers? The following report and suggestions might aid in solving this problem to some extent.

While this study dates back to September, 1932, the actual statistics cover the period from February 1, 1936, to January 29, 1937. The records studied are those of the pupils of Haaren High School, Pre-Aviation Annex.¹ The students

were in the first year of high school. The residence distribution was such as to give a composite picture of all boroughs.

During the fall of 1932, the writer and his associate,² thought that since most of the students could not afford to pay for a thorough physical examination at a private practitioner's office, the department of Health Education would solicit the aid of a friendly physician. The charge for each examination would be twenty-five (25c) per pupil. In many cases even this charge was overlooked. The items checked were:

1. Heart
2. Lungs
3. Abdomen for Hernia, etc.
4. Throat
5. Skin

Of the 800 or 900 students at this annex, some 25% to 30% were examined. As the records are not available, a detailed account is not possible. From this humble beginning the ball kept rolling until today, when we have approximately 90-95% medical examinations and the same percentage for dental examinations.² In regard to this last, during February, 1933, the writer prevailed upon a dentist to visit the school at 46th Street in order to examine the oral condition of the pupils. The charge for this service was ten (10c) cents per

²Theodore R. Kellert, in charge of H. E. at Annex 1.
³See table 2, page 16.

boy. Again many were examined at no cost, if they were in need. About 25% of the boys availed themselves of this dental service.

START OF THE CURRENT REPORT

During the semester starting February 1, 1936, the writer began an especially intensive campaign for physical checkups. The first day each class reported to Health Education, an informal talk was given on automotive, aeronautic, and finally human inspection. Questions and answers were many. The need for dental care was also stressed. Visual and aural inspections were mentioned briefly.

The boys were advised to consult their family physicians. Medical blanks were given out to those going to private doctors. The instructor then described the service offered by the Department of Health Education, to wit, that a doctor would visit the school very shortly to examine those boys who could not afford to visit private practitioners. The cost for this service would be twenty-five cents (25c) per boy. However, the teacher would recommend for free examination any boy who could not afford this sum. He stressed the point that any boy in need should see the instructor, privately when convenient, so that no one, including the physician, need know who could pay and who could not. This you imagine, would bring forth 100%. But no! Several problems

PROBLEMS IN OBTAINING EXAMINATIONS:

1. Many promised to see their own physicians but failed to do so.
2. Many felt that they could pay, but did not have the money available when the doctor visited the school. Feeling that they were not entitled to an examination, they did not appear for inspection.
3. Many could not afford to spend the twenty-five cents and were "too proud" to ask for help.
4. Many wished to be examined but were absent on the day of the doctor's visit.
5. Several were reluctant about disrobing before other boys.

During the first two weeks of the term, a letter was sent to the parent or guardian of each student stating the advisability of having a physical examination.

The place of examination was in a class-room. The doctor *was assisted by a special teacher*¹ who did the clerical work.

The items covered in the examination were:

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Heart | 9. Posture |
| 2. Lungs | 10. Nutrition |
| 3. Abdomen | 11. Orthopedic |
| 4. Skin | 12. Nervous System |
| 5. Eyes for disease | 13. Rectum |
| 6. Ears | 14. Thyroid |
| 7. Throat | 15. Hemoglobin |
| 8. Nose | 16. Hernia |

When all inspections were over for the day, the doctor took the

¹Mr. Edward Bella.

¹Located at 232 East 103rd Street, New York City.
²See table 1, page 16.

examination records home to complete, to make recommendations, and to sign. The urgent cases (cardiacs, hernias, etc.) were called to the attention of the teacher of Health Education. Conferences between the physician and the teacher helped to decide what procedure to follow in each of the cases of defects. Letters were sent to parents notifying them of any physical defects found, and advising them to consult the family doctor. In the instance of the more serious cases, the teacher asked the examining doctor to write to the parents to explain in more detail. This was done in about fifteen (15) cases. Result: six telephone conversations and two office visits; the remaining seven did not acknowledge these letters. In each of the conversations and visits, the physician advised visiting the family doctor or a clinic.

SOLVING THE PROBLEMS IN OBTAINING EXAMINATIONS

The following solutions were found for the problems on page 39.

1. For *the procrastinators*: The school as a whole was reminded during assemblies that failure to have a medical examination on file, *once a year, meant non-coöperation* in Health Education and might be a factor in determining final grades. During Hygiene¹ talks

¹ In addition to having 24 classes in the gymnasium, the writer taught 6 classes of Hygiene, with registers of 45 to 85 pupils in each class.

the necessity of physical check-ups was frequently discussed. At an occasional assembly the writer, while informing the student body of the doctor's next visit, would again stress the value of a medical examination.

2. For the *unprepared* and the *absentees*: Since many boys were absent the first time the physician visited, the physician was asked to come a second time, and finally a third time to complete the list. During the interim, the writer had been busy with personal interviews. These were almost hopeless, since his teaching program did not permit much time.

3. For those *too proud*: The teacher of Health Education interviewed many boys personally, calling them to his room upon finding that they had not had their examination. After being urged to take the examination, several availed themselves of this opportunity to have a free check-up.

4. For *the bashful*: Some overcame their shyness after a short talk with the instructor; some were sent to the examining doctor's office (at school rates), and two failed to be examined.

As an incentive, utilizing the principle of competition, a weekly chart, showing the standing of each class in the health examinations, was posted on the school bulletin and on the health bulletin in the gymnasium. Boys in those classes which were near the bottom of the list were frequently urged to better

the standing of their class. The teacher, in arousing this home-room class consciousness, succeeded in increasing the number of boys bringing in medical and dental reports.

So we come from the humble beginning of approximately 16.8% in the fall of 1932 to 90%¹ in the fall of 1936.

By the time the fall semester (1936) began, the school was "health-examination" conscious. The work was comparatively simple as the groundwork had been laid in the spring term. Of the 3% in the second term who did not have medical reports on file, 8 were chronic absentees or discharged, and the other one could not get parental permission. Among the first termers, we again encountered many of the same difficulties as in the spring term, but the examples of those who were not examined and the good record of the second term pupils served to stimulate the laggards.

DENTAL EXAMINATIONS

Returning to the dental examination, the same system of reaching the pupil and parent was utilized as in the case of the medical reports, with this exception—the second term boys in the fall of 1936 were considered as non-coöperative if they failed to have both medical and dental certificates on file (the medical from the preceding term carried over for the second term);

¹ See table 1, page 16.

the first term boys were given 10-15 points extra for dental certificates. As in the case of the physician, the writer interested a dentist in rendering this service to the school. Mr. Bella, or a student assisted the dentist by checking off on a card the defects noted by the examiner. Letters again were sent to the parents of the boys whose records showed the student had dental caries. Since the charge for this service was only ten cents (10c), we find that 96% of the second term pupils and 70.5%² of the first term pupils had filed dental examination certificates. This is quite a step forward from 3.18% in the fall of 1932 when this service was not available, to date.

VISUAL EXAMINATION

Every term, through the coöperation of an optometrist, all the students' eyes are tested. The optometrist carefully examined each boy's eyes by means of the Snellen chart and an ophthalmometer. Boys wearing glasses are advised, if there was a need, to revisit their own optometrist. Any pupil having defective sight was given a slip to visit, with a parent, a hospital where a more thorough examination is given under ideal conditions. (In school the optometrist selected the best available place and this was usually far from ideal.) Then, if necessary, the parent was advised to take the boy to the fam-

² See table 2, page 16.

ily optometrist or, if they had none, to go to the office of the examining optometrist where a student discount was given. Frequently glasses were given gratis to deserving cases. Those few boys who were absent during the visit of the optometrist were examined by the teacher of Health Education. Those showing defects in vision of 20/40 or more were sent to the hospital for re-examination. The system of follow-up in the case of glasses was the same as for the medicals and dentals, i.e., health conferences and letters to parents. Of the 389 boys examined¹ in the spring of 1936, 33 wore glasses in the elementary school, 59 new cases of defective vision were noted with 17 cases corrected that term. However, many of the boys obtained glasses during the summer vacation. In the fall of 1936, of the 382 first termers examined,² 45 wore glasses before entering high school, 53 new defectives were discovered with 34 corrections ensuing. Of the 19 uncorrected, 7 are on relief, the parents of 4 refused to believe that glasses were needed, 3 left school, and the others were evasive. Among the second termers,¹ only 18 new cases were discovered of the 290 examined, with 13 corrections resulting. Of the 5 uncorrected, 3

¹ See table 3, page 16.

² See table 3, page 16.

³ These probably were overlooked during the first examination, or were absent frequently and missed all examinations, or were transferred from other schools.

left or were leaving school and 2 were evasive. Those wearing glasses now reached a total of 52.

AURAL EXAMINATIONS

In the fall of 1936, a new aid was sent in the form of a group of audiometer experts on a W.P.A. project. Using the 4A library, Classes were tested in units of 40. Those showing loss of hearing were re-examined by the 2A audiometer. In practically every case of poor hearing, a history reveals ear trouble.

SUGGESTED METHODS OF FOLLOW-UP

Granting that you accept the findings as noted, what of it? A proper question with an answer that isn't too simple. Let us see what has been done (not what *may* be done) for those having physical defects at this annex. Take the case of Charlie Cardiac: Here is a seemingly healthy boy of 14, well built and a fair athlete. A day or two after the physical examination the teacher asks him to step out of line. Possibly in this class we have William Weakheart and Frank Fastbeat. The teacher suggests that during the examination they were a bit nervous and besides, there was the disturbing factor of outside noise. Consequently the doctor advises that they visit their own physicians or a clinic within two months to re-check this abnormal heart condi-

tion. Each boy is usually shocked but is quickly reassured by the instructor that this is probably only temporary; the only change of routine will be for the better, to wit, he will now become a class secretary to help mark attendance and keep records. He has certain privileges but is *not* excused from gym. As a matter of fact, he is permitted restricted exercises such as marching, facing, foul shooting, ring toss, spud, and any games not involving running or jumping. He misses very little and that, it is impressed upon him, will be for only a short while. Naturally, the parent is advised by letter to consult the family physician or visit the writer with a view to restricting outside activities. Of the 25 new cardiac cases discovered during the spring and fall of 1936, only two were returned to full activity programs. These were held up as examples to the others, and with a great uplift of morale, too. Then, the cardiacs have many discussions among themselves, and with the instructor as to the functions of the heart and its structure. *In the light of these discussions*, hope for improvement is maintained.

At the first meeting of each section of Health Education every term, those boys having knowledge of heart conditions, recent herniotomies, appendectomies, or other operations, or recovery from severe illness are advised to consult with the teacher of Health Education immediately.

But back to Charlie Cardiac. At first he is uncomfortably unreasonable. He is "mad at" the teacher. Pretty soon a feeling of importance due to his secretaryship overcomes this first feeling. Before long, Charlie finished his duties quickly so as to join in the marching tactics and any games in which he is permitted to participate. Whenever the game is of a strenuous nature, Charlie is "head" official, making all decisions with the support of the instructor. This is his time to play "big shot" and how he loves it, especially when it comes to telling George Greatframe that he is "out." So in a way, we have provided a limited program for the handicapped boys without the use of a corrective room, and without the mental demoralization which frequently takes place. Of course there is not 100% efficiency we hope for but "it will have to do, until something better comes along." So too, Herman Herniotomy, Alex Appendectomy, Paul Post Serious-illness, and Philip Post-Poliomyelitis have become worthwhile, participating, class citizens.

Let us consider the case of Fred Free. His mother is a widow dependent upon the city. His examination showed a cardiac abnormality. The follow-up letter brought Mrs. Free to school and as a result of the consultation with the writer, Fred was taken to his neighborhood clinic. Two weeks later, the physician in charge of the clinic

sent a letter to the school verifying the findings of the school. He thanked the teacher and commended him for his splendid, progressive ideas of coöperation between school and clinic. This boy received expert medical care at no cost to his already overburdened mother, who was doing her part in supervising his after-school activities. Imagine the supreme happiness of Secretary Fred when, upon re-examination at the clinic after six months had elapsed, he was given a letter to his Health Education teacher. The letter said that Fred was now permitted to take part in all gym activities and "to live the life of any normal boy." The instructor confessed to as great a thrill as the pupil, this being his third secretary to be "cured."

The case of Othello Otitis, while not so serious, was more difficult. His mother refused to go to a hospital to have her son's ears irrigated and his teeth attended to. The boy was tearfully apologetic at the health conference with his teacher. The reason, he explained, for his mother's refusal was due to the fact that the son of a friend had died in a hospital as a result of an appendectomy. Being of foreign birth and illiterate, she depended on housewives' tales for her medical and health information. A message from the head of the annex summoned her to school, the letter being written in the native language of the parent, with which the annex head was familiar. Ad-

vice from a "big man," in her own language, won her coöperation. A letter from the clinic states "O. O. was examined in our Ear, Nose and Throat Clinic on Nov. 27, 1936. Examination showed a deviated septum and impacted cerumen. The ears were irrigated. Examination of his dental clinic card revealed the presence of "9 cavities to be filled, one extraction done, and cleaning to follow; work to be complete in about two months."

Nathan Nearsight was found to have 20/200-20/100 vision. He was given a slip for re-examination at the hospital. For two months he avoided going. Finally, when checked up at the health conference, he admitted that he didn't like to wear glasses; he'd be a sissy; he'd look weak. After the teacher pointed out that many of our best athletes wore glasses, that many great leaders of men used glasses, he confessed that his father said that he did not need glasses. The boy wanted glasses because he knew that his eyesight was not good but he didn't dare risk his father's wrath. A letter, written in his father's native language, has been sent. To date there has been no reply.

And last, really climactically, the coöperation of the classroom teacher was enlisted. A list of the physically handicapped was sent to the office from the department of Health Education. The clerk typed this list and placed it on the teachers' bulletin board suggesting the

following procedures:

1. All pupils with defective vision and hearing to have centrally located front desks.
2. All cases of cardiac abnormalities, hernia, post operatives and those returning from a severe illness were to be seated whenever a room was overcrowded.
3. Wherever feasible, the program of the students mentioned in "2" were to provide for all classes on the same floor.
4. Special permission was to be given for the tardy appearance in recitation classes of those mentioned in "2."
5. The malnourished were to be given special lunch passes permitting them to leave the building in order to obtain hot lunches.¹
6. Publishing the list had two aims, primarily:
 1. The students were to be given as much consideration as possible under the circumstances.
 2. The teachers were better able to understand the situation if any of these boys were "problem cases."

SUGGESTED PROCEDURES

With the knowledge that he is laying himself open to criticism by the medical profession and by many of those engaged in educational endeavor, the writer makes the following suggestions:

¹Only crackers, milk, and candy are sold in this annex.

1. That a staff of physicians be licensed by the Board of Examiners,

a. To examine all pupils periodically:

1. To make recommendations in the cases of remediable defects;
2. To make decisions concerning excuse from physical education classes and granting of elevator passes;
3. To act as consultant in all corrective exercises;
4. To certify as to physical fitness for participation in interscholastic and intramural athletic competition;

b. To treat any serious emergency cases;

c. To be considered as an associate of the chairman of the department of Health Education;

d. To supervise, in cooperation with the swimming teacher, pool sanitation;

2. That either a Dentist or Dental Hygienist be licensed by the Board of Examiners for each school.

a. To make semi-annual oral inspections of each pupil;

b. To make recommendations for follow-up.

3. That a nurse or a teacher of Home-Nursing, or both, be assigned to each school on full time.

- a. To assist the physician;
- b. To aid in follow-up of remediable defects;
- c. To help teach Hygiene;
- d. For First-Aid and emergencies.

(Many more duties could be added to this schedule.)

4. That the coöperation of the local hospitals be solicited with a view to aid in the correction of remediable defects such as:

- a. Dental.
- b. Surgical.
- c. Therapeutical.

This service is to be extended, gratis, to those in need. For those who could afford to pay moderate fees, the proposed "Children's Hour"¹ set-up would suffice. Those pupils having family physicians would avail themselves of their services.

5. With the above set-up functioning we could have

- a. A uniform city-wide medical examination.

¹ The services of several doctors in each school district are enlisted, forming a panel for each section. This panel treats cases of remedial defects at clinic rates thus relieving the already overburdened hospitals. Prominent doctors have signified their willingness to coöperate in the New York County. The set-up at present is for New York County only.

REPORT ON PHYSICAL CONDITION OF PUPILS AT HAAREN HIGH SCHOOL PRE-AVIATION ANNEX FEBRUARY 1 TO DECEMBER 23, 1936

TABLE I
MEDICAL REPORT

	Spring 1st Termers	Fall 1st Termers	2nd Termers	Sp. & Fall Total
REGISTER.....	389	417 ¹	296	713 ¹
No. examined in school	285	345	33 & 251 ²	629 ³

¹ Including students on "X" register (perpetual absentees).

² Pupils examined in the spring term.

³ Totals for the fall term only.

b. A uniform medical examination card for the city.

c. A uniform medical examination folder or envelope for each pupil.

6. That examination be required for promotion and that removal of remediable defects be required for graduation.

CONCLUSION

It is the belief of the writer that the majority of defects found in pupils entering high school could have been avoided, or remedied, prior to admission to the secondary school; that these conditions can be avoided by adequate medical and dental care during the elementary school days; that adequate medical and dental service in the high schools would alleviate much of the unnecessary burden placed upon the home, community, teacher and child because of the prevalence of remediable defects. Finally, each school should have adequate facilities for periodic health examination and follow-up, the latter being of paramount importance.

No. examined at home	14	10	3	27
Total No. examined	299 (76.8%)	355 (87.5%)	36 & 251 (96.9%)	642 (90%)
Normal	102	99	22	223
Defective	197	256	14	467
No. of defects	279	383	16	661
No. of corrected defects	18	11	3	32

¹ Number of pupils free from defects.

² Number of pupils having some defect, not including visual or dental.

TABLE 2
DENTAL REPORT

	Fall only			
No. examined	234 (60.2%)	294 (70.5%)	284 (96%)	578 (81%)
No. defective	154 (65.8%)	198 (67.4%)	189 (66.5%)	387 (67%)
No. corrected	39 (16.7%)	27 (9.2%)	26 (9.15%)	53 (9.17%)
No. under care	21 (8.97%)	41 (14%)	54 (19%)	95 (16.4%)

TABLE 3
VISUAL REPORT

	Fall only			
No. examined	389	382	290	672
No. correct with glasses	33	45	52 ^a	97
No. defective	59	53	18	71
No. corrected	17	34	13	47
No. uncorrected	42 ^a	17	5	24

^a Many of these were corrected during the summer vacation.

SAMUEL B. GOLDBERG.

Pre-Aviation Annex, Haaren High School.

INTEGRATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDIES

Not long ago the Secondary Division of the National Education Association initiated the survey "Integration of Secondary School Studies." The intention was to determine the amount of correlation and integration existing among the various subjects and within each subject in the junior and Senior High School curricula.

The following statements constitute the writer's interpretation to a questionnaire,¹ submitted to him by the national chairman of the physical Education Committee.

STATEMENT I

Secondary education in American society within recent years has wit-

¹ Lack of space prohibits its inclusion.

nessed a greater evolution toward the "individual" than at any other time in history. The contemporary vanguard of education is increasingly concerned with positive steps toward enriching the lives of boys and girls through such national, social, and economic goals as a better biological endowment, a realization of physical and mental security, a greater participation in culture, and a greater practice in coöperativeness, good sportsmanship, fair play.²

The modern program of school health and physical education is fundamentally a method.³ In common with other methods it aims to guide the pupil in making harmonious adjustments to his immediate and probable future life and environment.⁴

The three administrative divisions of our welfare program must naturally deal with the normal growth and optimum development of the whole child.⁵ The School Health Service and Supervision activity, through its functions and program of Health Examinations and follow-up, First Aid and Safety Provisions, School Sanitation, and Healthful School Living, etc., acquaints the child and his parents

² See "Social and Economic Goals for America," *Journal of the National Education Association*, January, 1934.

³ S. C. Staley, *The Curriculum in Sports*, W. B. Saunders Co., 1935, page 104.

⁴ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, Macmillan, 1932.

⁵ See *Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendents of the N.E.A.*

with any deterrents he may possess, insures a school population fit and able to receive instruction, and provides a safe and sanitary school favorable to the best living and development of pupils, teachers, custodians and other employees. The School Health Instruction activity through its procedures provides basic scientific knowledges upon which desirable health practices, social attitudes, and ideals are founded.⁶ Through specific and graded hygiene instruction, we seek to articulate health knowledge with vital living experiences in home, school, and community.⁷ It should be remembered that learning about healthful living must permeate the whole school program; *it must not and cannot be limited to one particular time and place or to one particular individual or department. The entire school is responsible for its wholesome development.*

The third division is that of Directed Physical Activity. Through its program of "recre-actions" and total-body activities, it is primarily concerned with the building of organic vigor and power, so increasingly necessary in this modern life which is conducive to inactivity, as well as with the mastering of neuro-muscular skills in games, sports, dances, and stunts, to be used in an era of increased leisure. A good physical education pro-

⁶ Robert A. Davis, *Psychology of Learning*, McGraw-Hill, 1935.
⁷ W. R. LaPorte, "Progressive Physical Education," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, April, 1937.

gram—one that is not routinized—also provides opportunities for freedom of expression, socialization, team-work, emotional control, and sportsmanship, shows the importance of safety skills through the development of habits of safety and the use of student leader controls, and makes many valuable contributions to the physically atypical pupil through its individual health training program.

STATEMENT 2

A school curriculum must ever remain dynamic if it wishes to continue as a potential productive force. Especially must this be true in a mature democratic society.⁸ In the secondary school curriculum of today we usually find the traditional fields of English, science, and the social sciences. No doubt, these have undergone numerous alterations and adaptations, but not enough to keep abreast of the emerging needs and ever-changing realities of contemporary life.⁹ The Classical Languages (Greek and Latin) once compulsory for all, now have almost been eliminated (*Deo gratias!*) whereas the mod-

⁸ *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, 2 vols. Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1933.

⁹ The autobiography of Henry Adams furnishes an excellent case in point. You will recall that after a long and expensive period of formal education, he had this to say: "My education, splendid as it was, came nearer preparing me to live in the day of Julius Caesar than in the day of Theodore Roosevelt."

ern Languages (French, Spanish, German, Italian, and Hebrew) seem to be gaining in popularity in some schools while losing in others. Commercial subjects, vocational subjects, home economics, music, art, and health, physical education, recreation, and safety education once considered "fads, frills, and foibles," now have been generally accepted by thoughtful educators.

It should be remembered that regardless of what is put into a course of study, *the teacher is the curriculum*. Only under the direction of intelligent, courageous supervisors and teachers, usually found in our best schools, is it realized that an integrated curriculum represents an attitude of mind, a philosophy rather than rules or orders set down in print. That attitude is shown by the desire and intention to teach youth what they really need to enable them, in this streamlined era, to live their lives harmoniously and happily.¹⁰

Technological developments, with labor-saving devices, improved means of transportation, and body comforts are making the need for muscular development less and less. More and more surveys indicate that in adulthood, especially during middle and later life, there is a great increase in diseases of the heart, the blood vessels, and

¹⁰ Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, pages 252-88, Macmillan, 1933. See also *The Great Investment*, p. 46. Harvard University Press, 1930.

kidneys. This biological degeneration is probably due partly to our sedentary mode of living. Professor Tyler reminds us that exercise suited to the individual's need brings beneficial effects; it stimulates growth and development.¹¹

No thinking individual will deny that health and physical education through its modern three-fold program does not make a distinct and concrete contribution.

Why do not boards of education and administrators provide more opportunities necessary for abundant living? Why do they not, for the so-called "teachers of facts," provide the wholesome environment necessary for the realization and wholesale application of these facts. The field of health and physical education must act as the hub of the wheel and have for its spokes the remainder of the subject family in the secondary curriculum.

In any society there is always need for integrated personalities,¹² particularly in our society which is characterized by constant change, economic insecurity, and inequality of opportunity. There is sufficient evidence to show that mental disorders and personal disintegrations are on the increase. This is a challenge to education. The health and physical education program assists

¹¹ G. M. Tyler, *Growth and Education*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1907. Chapter II.

¹² W. H. Kilpatrick and others: *The Educational Frontier*, pp. 290-93, Appleton-Century, 1933.

in meeting this challenge through its lessons in the classroom and on the playfield. Democratic coöperation (team work) has always been the keystone in our play lessons. Our modern program of activities allows a release from the enforced regimentation, provides for individual differences and self-expression, and offers opportunities for character inspiration and training.

STATEMENT 3

The writer knows of only one attempt with unified courses. This is the experiment of William S. Learned with superior high school students, in the schools of Pennsylvania. This has been described in part in a reprint entitled "*Credits*" vs. *Education*, and issued by the Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York (1933).

STATEMENT 4

Some attempts have been made to correlate health and physical education with other fields. The usefulness of these attempts is shown by the pride and joy of the pupils participating in the experiments by the increased enthusiasm and interest of the class and better results obtained.

STATEMENT 5

Further integration can be achieved. In the writer's opinion, these are the next steps:

The National Education Association should enlist the support and

coöperation of the administrator or principal in each secondary school.

The administrator in each school should appoint a committee of teachers who are vitally interested in the problem.

This committee should meet at least once a week, unless circumstances require more frequent meetings, to discuss plans, procedures and accomplishments.

Each committee member should be held responsible for a particular element in the program, such as courses of study, classroom projects, pupil difficulties, teacher difficulties, and so on.

Student committees and class leaders may be called upon to assist. After a reasonable time, the National Committee should report on the findings and suggest the next steps.

STATEMENT 6

Teachers of health and physical education have had a difficult time in the classroom. In the main, this has been due to the huge classrooms (frequently classes are assembled for hygiene in the auditorium, in the lunchroom, and on the gymnasium floor), the large numbers (from 50 pupils and up), the lack of equipment (no visual aids, charts, models, and textbooks), the lack of preparation on the part of many teachers and the lack of classroom teaching experience on the part of many chairmen. The attitude of the pupil has also been a great factor. Pupils

too often look upon their teacher of hygiene as a coach. The latter too frequently walks into the classroom with his sweater on, sits on the desk, and looks upon his "subject" as do his pupils, "as just a minor which comes once a week."

Slowly these difficulties are being overcome. Teachers are becoming more professional-minded.¹³ It seems almost trite to say that better preparation, vitalized instruction and continuous in-service training yield a corresponding improvement on the part of pupils. Enthusiasm begets enthusiasm. Wherever administrators see the difference, they usually coöperate more.

The writer has found that by putting in about two extra hours each day after school, he can overcome some of the present-day difficulties and realize some of his objectives.

STATEMENT 7

By and large, administrators lack a "health positive point of view." The period allotted to health and physical education is usually the happy dumping period. Some of our activity classes have 80 boys, while other classes have 380. These classes are programmed nearly always without regard to the pupils' lunch periods. Departments of health and physical education are allotted invariably insufficient equipment, facilities, time, and

¹³ P. W. L. Cox and F. E. Long. *Principles of Secondary Education*, page 7. D. C. Heath and Company, 1932.

space. Seldom are we constructively observed and supervised. We are greatly under-manned. We still are frowned upon frequently as "just gym teachers."

Some of these administrative difficulties (there are very many more than the writer has mentioned) can easily be overcome at this time, while others cannot. But, not until administrators see that a program of regimented calisthenics or mass gymnastics or indiscriminate games for all students (irrespective of their needs and differences) is a futile one, will the curriculum in school health and physical education move in the right direction. Does it not seem strange for a so-called successful administrator who talks about his interest in the child and accepts the truth that education is for the *whole child*, to permit his school to offer

a curriculum of studies that reflect fear, tenseness, and feelings of strain that do practically nothing for the failing pupil, the shy pupil, the aggressive, the emotionally unstable, or the discouraged?

STATEMENT 8

The new emphasis in health education can easily justify itself in an improvement of the manner of living and in better behavior of pupils. To assure to each boy the fullest possible opportunity to come into fruitful contact with constructive social living, all agencies of society—the family, the church, the library, the newspaper, the radio, the cinema, the theatre, the workshop, the playground, the settlement house, and all the rest—must share in the task.

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THE OLD-TYPE TEST IN MODERN LANGUAGES AND THE NEW

The new-type test seems to have taken such hold in the field of modern language instruction that a test need only be labeled old-type to be condemned as not being objective, or scientific, or modern; and yet one may wonder whether the old-type test is inherently as bad as its present disrepute would lead one to believe.

Let me, for the sake of com-

parison, put down some items from Part III, French Grammar compilation, of the Greenberg and Wood test for junior high school (Ben D. Wood, "New York Experiments with New-Type Modern Language Tests," Vol. I, Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, pp. 62 ff., later adopted as the American Council Beta French Test Form B).

1. Give me the pen-knife. (.....) le canif.
7. I eat some bread with each meal. Je mange (.....) à chaque repas.
50. I shall go at once. J'irai (.....).
8. He gives me the papers. (.....) les papiers.
13. These flowers are beautiful. (.....) sont jolies.
5. Bring me the others. Apportez-moi (.....).
42. I am sure you are wrong. Je suis sûr que vous (.....).
46. We go there frequently. Nous y allons (.....).
29. What do you say? (.....).
11. I speak to the children. Je parle (.....) enfants.
44. I am well. (.....).
24. Because he was ill. (.....) était malade.
21. The weather is fine. (.....).
45. Did they sell their house? (.....) leur maison?
28. Do you live in the green house? Demeurez-vous dans (.....).

Now this test, it is clear, affords a means of measuring objectively fifteen distinct bits of the student's knowledge of French grammar, and, since each item contains only a single point, the teacher can put his finger with

great discrimination upon any weak spot: this is known as its diagnostic value.

Let me now present an (hypothetical) old-type test with the usual directions: "Translate into French."

- A. 1. Give me/some bread/at once.
2. He gives me/these flowers/and the others.
3. You are wrong/frequently.
4. What do you say/to the children?
5. I am well/because/the weather is fine.
6. Did they sell/the green house?

The reader will notice, of course, that the second test simply arranges in sentence form the identical fifteen items, item for item, and word for word, that appear in the first test, omitting nothing and adding only two words: "and" and "children." Now I ask in all good faith why this second test cannot be marked just as objectively as the first, why

it is not as discerning in its diagnosis, and why it should cost from eight to ten times as much as the first to print and to correct over a period of years (op. cit. p. 311).

The advocate of the new-type test may protest that the juxtaposition of two or three items gives rise to a new entity, the sentence, which is bigger than the sum of its parts. I merely sug-

gest that the critical reader ask himself whether this is so in the examples above: whether, for example, the two items "you are wrong" and "frequently" contain anything beyond these very two items, or present greater difficulty when arranged horizontally than when arranged vertically. There are, of course, sentences, idiomatic expressions, and other semantic units that contain a meaning over and above the sum of the individual words of which they are composed, and it is precisely in these cases that the old-type test can claim superiority, for it seems to be testing connected sentences and continuous discourse such as the student might be called upon to use in real life, whereas the new-type test seems to be presenting the student with an artificial

and fragmentary situation.

The proponent of the new-type test may go on to claim the advantage that it concentrates the student's attention on the single point to be tested, that it eliminates the irrelevant, and thus removes the necessity of the student's writing down things that are not at issue and that merely waste time; that, consequently, more items can be tested and a more complete sampling be offered. He may claim, further, that the new-type test places each item in a context, so that the answer is suggested by a process of association as an integral part of a "gestalt."

Let us examine the following examples in the light of these claims.

20. There are forty-three students in the class. Il y a (.....) élèves dans la classe.
23. They have eighty-five books. Ils ont (.....) livres.
33. Take the other one. Prenez (.....).
35. Come quickly. Venez (.....).
37. We are going home. Nous (.....) chez nous.
38. They are calling Jacques. Ils (.....) Jacques.
43. They left early. Ils partirent (.....).
45. Did they sell their house? (.....) leur maison?
46. We go there frequently. Nous y allons (.....).
50. I shall go at once. J'irai (.....).

Let the reader honestly ask himself what nexus we destroy when we merely ask the student to "Translate into French:"

- B. 1. forty-three
2. eighty-five
3. the other

4. quickly
5. at once
6. we are going
7. they are calling
8. early
9. did they sell?
10. frequently

Does the reader feel that the words above require the particular context in which they appear; that "forty-three" applies with special appropriateness to "students" and "eighty-five" to "books"; that it is a "house" that "sells" particularly well? Can B be matched for singleness of purpose, for strict

relevance and for economy of the student's time and attention? And is there anything in the context of sentences like these that gives them greater merit for appearing in a new-type test than in an old: in fact, how do they differ from the old?

- C. 21. The weather is fine. (.....).
29. What do you say? (.....).
44. I am well. Je (.....).

Might it not be retorted that it is the new-type test that introduces a mass of irrelevant material that takes the student's time and attention to no purpose? If, as it is obvious, the examiner wants to know whether the student can express the ideas "forty-three" and "quickly" in French, why not say forthwith, with the old-type test, "Translate into

French: 'forty-three', and 'quickly'?" What is gained by putting such simple items into context? Why all the apparatus*? But when the questions are presented thus unencumbered, cannot a greater number be presented and an even better sampling made? I ask these questions in all sincerity and with no desire to be captious.

*Note: I cannot keep from giving an illustration of the obliqueness of some of these tests, taken from The American Council Alpha French Test, Part I—Form A, Grammar III; I add, for comparison, a test of the old kind.

NEW-TYPE

OLD-TYPE

III. In the place of the underscored words, write on the dotted line at the right the proper possessive adjective (*mon, son, etc.*):

Je connais la soeur de Pierre
Les leçons des petits garçons

VIII. Shift the tense of the following verbs and write the form asked for in the same person and number as in the question:

Il a acheté deux livres.
Elle peut le faire.
Nous n'allons plus au bois.
Ces dames viennent à l'heure.

Present
Conditional
Conditional
Past indefinite

Translate into French:
1. his sister
2. their lessons

Translate into French:
he buys
she would be able
we would go
they have come

Perhaps the advocate of the new-type test will now maintain that I overlook its principal advantage, namely, that it is standardized, and that it constitutes a

single continuous scale for all students in all grades of French. I can only remind him by way of an answer that the standardization of a test is an entirely extrinsic

consideration, that it is not a virtue of the test, but of the group of experimenters and testers that went to the trouble of standardizing it, and that there is every presumption that the same distinguished group of investigators could lay down norms just as useful and just as scientifically constructed on the basis of an old-type test. The Trabue composition scale, by which an entire composition is graded, and the success of comparable items in the Stanford-Binet are significant in this connection.

Parts I and II of this test, being multiple choice tests, are open, among other pedagogical objections,* to the objection that there is no way to distinguish between a guess and knowledge. Thus, 31% gave the correct answer to item II, 28: Un bonne [sic] qui passe sa vie sur un bateau s'appelle —1. un voisin 2. un matelot 3. un médecin 4. un oncle 5. un neveu; although the misprint made this sentence practically unintelligible. But if the items in Part I were of the completion or recall type this part of the test would be identical with the old-fashioned

* In spite of Henmon's vigorous defense of the multiple choice type (*Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, Coleman, University of Chicago Press, 1934, p. 212; cf. *Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages*, Macmillan, 1930, p. 9 ff.), the presentation of several incorrect items constitutes a serious objection in view of the claim made that the new-type test is a valuable teaching device; *vide infra*.

vocabulary test.

Part II, a valuable and ingenious test of comprehension, is open to the criticism that the questions often involve not mere comprehension, but also general intelligence, general and specific information, and, occasionally, sophistication or perspicacity with respect to the intention of the question. Thus, the student may thoroughly understand the question and still choose an "incorrect" answer; for example, he may believe that the capital of France is the *Seine* (1), that the apple is a *vegetable* rather than a *fruit* (3), that *English* is the language spoken in Paris (8); he may not know that wool comes from the sheep (48); he may know that Robert is 12 years old and is three years older than Jeanne, and still conclude, mistakenly, that Jeanne is 15 years old (21); he may prefer to say that snow is *useless* rather than *white*, for why should the examiner ask such a simple question? (6), that the sky is *white* when the weather is fine (11), and that the honest man among thieves is *fearless* rather than *in danger* (59); he may have good reason to say that Sunday is a day of *work* (15), that beds are found in the *parlor* and in the *kitchen* (18), that leaves are *dry* in the summer (26), that young children prefer *precious stones* rather than *toys* (49), that a man that gives money to the poor is *dangerous* rather than *generous* (9), and that a rich

man that never gives to the poor and denies himself is *very wise* (56).

I do not in the least mean to imply that these accidental faults vitiate the valuable type of question contained in Part II; I simply wonder why they were accepted so uncritically when the most straight-forward and unambiguous means of testing comprehension is to ask for the meaning of the passage in English. Who of us has not, time and again, found that students could answer very intelligently in the foreign language by simple addition or conversion, and still have an entirely incorrect notion of the meaning of the passage? And I ask again why such devious and hazardous devices were preferred to the direct and searching and decisive way of translation.

If I am answered that this new type of question is preferred because, with its preponderance of the foreign language, it constitutes also a good teaching device and affords the student an opportunity of learning additional expressions and of enriching his apperceptive mass, I may still ask whether this is an indispensable desideratum when the purpose of the test is to determine upon a final rating, or an achievement score, or a placement number, or a percentile rank.

On the whole, I believe that what accounts for the great vogue of the new-type test is that it falls in very well with certain tenets of

the direct methods of instruction, namely, that English should be eliminated as far as possible and that the foreign language be made the vehicle of instruction. Looked at from this point of view it is no more surprising that the new-type test is in favor now than that the older grammar-translation method preferred the translation tests, and that the reading method prefers to test by comprehension of paragraphs, and that the "intensive" method chooses translation from English into the foreign language and composition; in other words, it is possible that a greater or smaller part of the value of the new-type test may not be intrinsic, but may be contingent upon the acceptance of a particular methodology. A fuller discussion of this question is beyond the scope of the present article.

The point of this article is, in brief, that each type of test has advantages in some situation to which it is especially appropriate for some reason or other, and that we should bend our energies with open minds toward determining what these advantages and those situations are; that a well-thought-out test of the old type is probably not a whit less efficacious than a well-thought-out test of the new, just as a technically faulty test of one type is as infructuous and unenlightening as one of the other; but that to accept uncritically and unwittingly one type of test because it is advocated by one school

and condemn another because it is favored by another—and, in particular, to genuflect before one type of test because of a peculiar typo-

graphical arrangement — is unworthy of our profession.
H. STOCK,
High School of Music and Art.

HIGH POINTS

GERMAN ASSEMBLY PROGRAMS: A PANORAMA¹

Brasses, woodwinds, and gut and steel strings trembled on a great D-chord for four measures. Over all, the tympani beat a steady, hysterical thunder. Then — crash! crash! crash! — and the symphonic season was over.

The critics went away to write. And among other things to consider the new conductor's merits as a program-maker.

"Program-making" — in the world of music this function has been brought to its highest development. In selecting and arranging the pieces to be performed the conductor or the recitalist must give close study to the principles of preparation, contrast, climax, and dénouement.

There is a lesson in this for the teacher who is preparing a program for a club or the general assembly—and more to the point, a German program. Any one who has observed school entertain-

ment work must have been struck by the number of instances in which programs fail to catch hold in spite of the fact that they are composed of elements which, considered separately, are of high quality. These failures might have been avoided by a more skillful arrangement of the material—by better "program-making." The first two programs selected illustrate not only well chosen material, but also its canny arrangement to make a well balanced whole.

This one, sent by Professor Stephan J. Schlossmacher, was given by the Studenten Verbindung Germania of Dartmouth College:

O Tannenbaum—Gemeinsames Lied

Begrüßungsrede des Praesidenten der Germania

Weihnachtslegende (A. Freiin von Gaudy)

O du froehliche—Gemeinsames Lied

Der Traum (Hoffmann von Fallersleben)

Der erste Weihnachtschoral (M. Moeller)

Floetensolo

Es ist ein Reis entsprungen—Gemeinsames Lied

Hl. Abend auf der rauhen Alp (S. J. Schlossmacher)
Weihnacht (Ernst von Wildenbruch)—Sprechchor der Mitglieder der Conversationsklassen Deutsch 21 und 51
Das Apostelspiel (Max Mell)
Begrüßung der Vertreter der Franzoesischen, Spanischen, und Italienischen Vereine an Dartmouth College
Guten Abend, gut' Nacht—Gemeinsames Lied

Here there is to be noted first of all the skillful placement of music—at the beginning and the end, and liberally throughout, especially after more serious matter such as a talk or a play. Secondly, the possibility of greater variety in instrumental music is suggested by the flute solo. (Even high schools could present typical music for brass instruments—either solo or in groups). Another notable feature (again, not beyond the high school range) is the choral speaking developed out of classroom work.

Any one who has observed a well planned Weihnachts-Feier may agree that no other academic event (not even commencement) has a greater emotional effect on the participants. The nostalgic beauty of the Old-World rituals is reinforced by the deep-seated native associations with the holiday. It will not be amiss, then, to notice some other treatments of this festival.

Dr. Meyer Krakowski sends the

next example from the Deutscher Verein of Los Angeles Junior College:

Begrüßung

Gemeinsames Lied: *O du froehliche*

Musikvortrag: *Um den Weihnachtsbaum*, bearbeitet von T. M. Tobani—Streichquartett

Gesang:

(a) *Das Christkind* von Peter Cornelius

(b) *Die Hirten* von Peter Cornelius

Gemeinsames Lied: *Stille Nacht Vorderhaus und Hinterhaus*, Weihnachtsbild in 1 Akt, von Carl Siber

Ansprache

Weihnachtslieder:

(a) *Hebe deine Augen auf*, Terzett aus "Elias," von Mendelssohn

(b) *Wiegenlied* von Brahms

(c) *Stille Nacht* (solo)

Gemeinsames Lied: *O Tannenbaum*

Geselliges Beisammensein und Tanz—Musik vom Tiroler und Bayern Orchester

Gemeinsames Lied: *Muss i denn*

This last is certainly a richly varied and satisfying program, with its string quartet, its chorus of feminine voices singing Mendelssohn and Brahms, and its folk-dancing. Dr. Krakowski adds in a letter, "A German atmosphere prevails throughout the entire evening. This is made the occasion of a 'family festival,' being open

¹In connection with the prospective revision of a book on assembly programs a survey was made on the subject of foreign-language programs in this country and abroad. Correspondence was initiated with more than two hundred teachers, administrators, and service bureaux. This article presents high lights of the study for German.

to parents and other relatives of members of the club. . . . It is also made the occasion of a reunion with the alumni of the club."

Another outline for a Christmas sketch is drawn from a program of the Folk Festival Council. The scene is a home in Thuringia. According to custom, the children put their shoes on the window sill on St. Nicholas' Day, December 7. Then the curtain is lowered to show the passage of time, and it rises on the same home on Christmas eve. Music and the Weihnachtsglocken are heard as the parents are trimming the Christmas tree. The children troop in, and shortly afterward the Weihnachtsmann enters. The youngsters address him in the traditional jingle, telling him that they have been good children, and he distributes their rewards. Now carolers are heard approaching, and at last those within the house join the singers in *O Tannenbaum*, *O du froehliche*, and *Stille Nacht*.

This last program, needless to say, is especially suitable for younger students.

Of the original dramatic scripts received, three contained in the *Bunte Bogen* of Washington Irving High School, New York City, were of special distinction. These plays, *Grosses Geschaef*, *Der Dichter*, and *Immensee* (a dramatization of the novel) show an unusual theater-sense and ready command of unstilted German. Miss

Dorothea Eltzner, the sponsor of this work, explains as follows her method of preparing plays for presentation:

It is my custom to let small committees prepare longer plays in the following way: I supply each member of the committee with a copy of one of the old plays we happen to have—*Einer muss Heiraten*, *Eigensinn*, *Hochzeitsreise*. Size of committee usually equivalent to number of actors in the play. In committee, without teacher's aid, these pupils shorten and simplify the play, assign parts and rehearse. I attend one—at most two—rehearsals. The girls then present the play at a club meeting. If they do well, we arrange to let them give it in assembly. Sometimes rival casts study the play, and the club votes on the group that does best. The winner then presents the play in assembly.

Another play, *In the Berlin Thiergarten* by Hubert Shands, comes from the South. This work, containing both English and German, tells the story of an American girl's flirtation with a German man, which is ended when the latter's fiancée arrives on the scene. Those interested in this play (primarily for audiences of college grade) may address inquiries to Dean Colley P. Sparkman of State Teachers College, Hattiesburg, Mississippi.

A lively series of dramatizations

is reported from Langley High School, Pittsburgh, through the courtesy of Miss Hattie McConaughy and Miss Fretts. The following pieces are included:

"Schulzes im Restaurant" from *German Life*, by Philip S. Allen

Max und Moritz by William Busch (given as a pantomime with reading done by one person at the side of the stage)

Dornroeschen (dramatized and produced by members of the German Club)

Rotkaeppchen (translated into German rhyme by individual club members and dramatized)

"Der neue Hut" from Kenn-gott's *Kleine Geschichten*

A German in America (an original dialogue by two members of the German Club)

Nursery rhymes. (As a project the class translated the rhymes into German and dramatized them for an assembly program. Several readers gave the lines in German from memory while the actors performed with suitable costumes and scenery.)

Mr. Rupert Eichholzer, head of the German Department at Broadway High School, Broadway, Iowa, gives a hint of a highly entertaining program: ". . . the girls worked out a 'Kaffeeklatsch' . . ." And one more idea from the Middle West: "The recently or-

ganized school German band is to give a program of German folk songs at this week's assembly." (From Miss Emma F. Zur Muehlen, Union High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan.)

A program on German food suggests itself. Against a backdrop that consists of a magnified German menu there may be dramatizations and talks on the peculiarities of the German cuisine, the reasons for its distinctive nature, some famous cooks, some famous dishes, primitive German cooking, etc. For the remainder of the program it may be remembered that music and German food have always gone naturally together. Some information required for this program may be obtained from articles in the following magazines: *Saturday Evening Post*, March 31, 1928; *Living Age*, February 6, 1926; *Better Homes and Gardens*, March, 1931.

Finally, it is of interest to notice the extra-curricular work of a distinguished foreign school—Oundle School in Northamptonshire, England. (H. G. Wells's son studied here.) Mr. Hugo Candwell writes as follows:

"We have had twenty-minute talks on such subjects as German drama . . . Lectures on foreign travels, illustrated by lantern slides, are frequently introduced into the programme in order to develop a desire to travel and an interest in the life and civilisation of other countries. These lectures, deliv-

ered sometimes in English and sometimes in the foreign language, have illustrated parts of Spain and France and Sweden. We have also had short talks from boys on their experiences, during the holidays, in Brittany, Austria, etc. . . . The best of these talks was illustrated by a silent film made by the boy himself."

Mr. Candwell mentions a school production of *Till Eulenspiegels Ausfahrt* and remarks, "But of all the senior activities the most valuable apart from the actual production of a foreign play, is recitation or the acting of short scenes." Scenes may be taken from such plays as *Die Journalisten* or *Minna von Barnhelm*. A sense of the value of this work is reiterated: "We are most anxious that the dramatic work and recitation should continue to form part of the programmes of both [junior and senior] societies as it not only improves the oral work of the performers but also produces a realisation that a foreign language is a vehicle for ideas."

Further,

"Gramophone evenings are very popular. Copies of the words of German, French or Spanish songs are duplicated and distributed and great enthusiasm can be aroused by a judicious selection of songs (mostly German) and dramatic readings . . . a wireless evening listening in to foreign stations might prove as

popular as a gramophone evening."

Of course English proximity to the Continent opens special possibilities in "wireless" and travel talks. But with the development of radio education the first of these advantages at least may be equalized here in America.

ARTHUR MINTON.
Boys High School.

SPECIAL HISTORY

In James Madison High School we have special history classes in both Modern European and American History. Students are selected on the basis of their good record and intelligent interest in the first term of Modern European History. The course is conducted with preparation for college work as one of the main objectives. The outstanding feature is a combination of class and library sessions. The teacher who conducts this class is allowed full liberty to formulate problems and projects as he desires. Last term I experimented with the following ideas and I feel that I aroused some genuine interest among the members of the class.

I explained to the students that preparation for college work in history requires, first, the habit of reading and consulting books other than the text book. I did not give the students a list of books but allowed them to browse through the books our library con-

tains. I explained to them that there is real pleasure in browsing and learning the "feel" of a book. By degrees the individual student finds a favorite or two, yet knows at the same time that real scholarly work necessitates familiarity with many books. I tried to vary the type of each problem. For example, I stressed the value of statistics in historical research and I gave a project that required just the finding of numbers and figures and the juggling them about in order to reach a conclusion. I also tried to point out the misleading effects that figures produce. The students were then given an opportunity to apply the "scientific attitude of mind" about which they learned so much in their science courses. The growth of manufactures in the United States is a fine subject for statistical work. Another type of project took us into the fascinating world of source material. We consulted books on "Readings" and papers were prepared which were primarily a compilation of the readings. I tried to make them enjoy the old-fashioned verbose phraseology in order to give them the flavor of the period. A detailed reading of the laws passed by England under her New Colonial Policy and the numerous protests by the colonial leaders put life into an otherwise dull period.

I appreciate the fact that the

above two problems do not lend themselves to constructive thought on the part of the student but, as I noted before, the main object is to show them the sources from which text book writers cull their material and how getting down to the roots of a period recapture some of the vitality that the period must actually have had. After some work with these two types of problems, I suggested a problem involving a controversial opinion but which in the execution must include both statistics and source material to give the paper real value. This enables a student to develop his thoughts, combine them with real facts and develop perhaps a literary style. I emphasize that this is a good preparation for journalistic writing and radio commentating. This produces a fine correlation between creative writing and historical data. Papers of this type I marked as if I were a teacher of English. I looked for unusual introductions and conclusions. I praised a neat phrase or a unique turn of language. The students vied with one another to produce papers that were properly documented with accurate references and at the same time had an arresting style. The subject matter of projects of this type was selected by the students themselves who have from a few weeks' contact with figures and source material been developing original

lively "slants" on certain periods.

Another problem that was successful was the "atlas" project. Unfamiliarity with historical places is only too common. Therefore a series of maps was drawn to fit a logical sequence. The development of transportation was a fine topic for this type of problem. When we were studying the Supreme Court and the cases we had a number of projects. Law books were consulted to get the legal phraseology, source material was obtained to get the background of the dispute, and biographies were read to give a flesh and blood touch to the characters involved.

The field for project work is limitless when cultural subjects are introduced. A lively interest in glassware, ceramics, furniture and costumes brings, for example, the Jacksonian period or the "Mauve Decade" to life and at the same times gives the student a glimpse into the fields of knowledge essential for the writing of an historical play or novel. Students imbued with a native interest in social justice can find splendid material in a study of humanitarian movements, and pupils with a poetical touch collected miniature anthologies to fit a period or a topic.

Our Colonial possessions, our attitude toward world coöperation, recent labor developments and the high lights of the present administration make for projects in-

volving the use of the "Reader's Guide" and current magazine articles. A course such as this necessitates the collection of newspaper and magazine articles. Unless properly catalogued and easily accessible, these articles become just so much "waste paper." A number of my students prepared original filing schemes for these articles so that we could easily refer to them and by the end of the term we had a number of miniature libraries actually gathered and organized by the pupils. This proved to be a fascinating part of the work and real pleasure was experienced when one student could furnish at a moment's notice the correct data to another student deep in research on some project.

As the term progressed, it was interesting to note that the individual student took unto himself some problem which interested him and he followed that problem or a train of thought throughout his other problems. For example, a number of students were interested in the negro. They used the various devices for obtaining information, figures as to the number of slaves at various times, source material as to plantation life, personal opinions as to their treatment since the Civil War, and at the end of the term these students handed in a term project which had in addition to the above illustrations, something original,

and here and there a bit of poetry or a pungent quotation. In fact, every pupil developed a term paper which represented his particular interest. Detailed studies of the Supreme Court Cases were favorites. Development of business offered an opportunity for those particularly interested in figures, the Westward Movement and expansion with the aid of a stamp collection was also popular.

I asked one of my students while I was writing this if he remembered just how I conducted the course. His answer was as follows, "You did not conduct the course. You just let us do whatever we were really interested in." By the way, this student enjoyed finding an appropriate quotation for the beginning and the end of every project and he drew his material from the classics down to the newspaper columnists. The use of the library for reference work and as a preparation for college history, but not with any cut and dried lists of books and ready made projects, was combined with the realization that a problem that a student himself evolved from a growing familiarity with books and source material would become an interest that might carry on through college days and even be translated into life work of some kind.

VIOLA L. NEIMAN.
James Madison High School.

A PROJECT IN PUPIL EVALUATION OF TEXTBOOKS

Just as teachers have increasingly been demanding democratic participation in educational management, with equal vigor they should be ready to grant to pupils coöperative activity in evaluation of classroom materials and procedure. A suggestion for application of the foregoing principle was derived from the following in "Our Changing Government" by Steinberg and Lamm. (J. B. Lippincott Co., 1937.):

CONCLUSION

"We ask one more thing of you. Will you not write us in care of our publishers, and tell us what you think of this book? Has it carried out its purpose? Did you find it interesting and readable? Has it helped you get a point of view? Did you like it? Your comments will be most welcome, and we shall to a large extent be guided by them in any revisions of this book which we may make in the future."

After study had been completed on the unit of Development of Democratic Institutions with "Our Changing Government" as the basic text, the writer assigned the preceding questions to his classes. Committees in each class were appointed to assemble in a class report the differing points of view. Here are the four reports of the writer's senior classes in second-term American History.

EVALUATION OF THE TEXTBOOK
"OUR CHANGING GOVERNMENT"
AMERICAN HISTORY 21

All in all the American History 21 class of Richmod Hill High School reached a favorable point of view in regard to the textbook "Our Changing Government."

Everyone agreed that the material was presented in a concise and understandable manner and that it had carried out the purpose of equipping the students with the framework and functions of our government, covering all the important work in as small a space as possible.

To quote one of the students—"I found this book very interesting for a history book—in my opinion it was not as dry reading as some other history books." The opinions of the other students concerning this question ran on a similar parallel.

As would be expected, each member of the class received a point of view through the efforts of the book. Unfortunately, however, no one knew exactly what the point of view was.

Everyone liked the book as it was very simple to understand and read. One member of the class liked the manner of having each new topic put forward with a heading.

Unfortunately no other comments were submitted, although one girl said that she still longs

for the day when a history book in "outline form" will be produced.

EVALUATION OF TEXTBOOK
"OUR CHANGING GOVERNMENT"
AMERICAN HISTORY 22

A. What do you think of this book?

The opinion of the group was unanimous as to judging the book. They all agreed it was one of the best textbooks they ever used.

B. Has it carried out its purpose?

It was also agreed that the book enlightened us with the framework and functions of the government and encouraged us to further study.

C. Did you find it interesting and readable?

The majority agreed that the book was both interesting and readable. There was a difference of opinion as to the fact that the authors had a tendency to wander while displaying and presenting their material. There was also special comment given to the print and texture of the paper.

D. Has it helped you get a point of view?

There wasn't anyone who said it gave them a point of view. However, it was said that it made us realize the power of our government and its good and evil.

E. Did you like it?

Even though everyone agreed that it was interesting, there were

a few who said it was just another textbook. There was special attention drawn to the helpfulness of the quotations at the beginning of the chapters, the titles and sub-titles, the summary at the end and the charts.

F. Other comments.
Some said there should be more pictures and charts and also more sub-titles.

EVALUATION OF TEXTBOOK
"OUR CHANGING GOVERNMENT"
AMERICAN HISTORY 23

History is a subject which anyone who is interested can master. American History is a subject everyone should be interested in since it so closely touches our lives. Therefore, the greatest quality to be found in a history text, besides truthfulness, is an ability to arouse interest.

Since this is a textbook for all high school students, it is only fair that we present the evaluation from the class as a whole.

The class felt that the authors have presented one of the best books of its kind. The attractive appearance, the many illustrations, the quotations of famous men, and the easy novel-like reading, all go to make the book as interesting as a text can be and still equip the student with a knowledge of the fundamentals of our government and some of the problems it faces today.

However, there were some stu-

dents who sincerely felt that the book might have been more concise and felt the authors were somewhat biased on some subjects, such as the fascist state description.

EVALUATION OF TEXTBOOK
"OUR CHANGING GOVERNMENT"
AMERICAN HISTORY 24

In making the survey for the evaluation of the textbook "Our Changing Government" each member of the class was asked to write an essay giving his opinion of the book. The essays were then checked and as each point was mentioned it was written on a piece of paper. Every time it was mentioned thereafter it was checked on the paper and when all the essays were read the checks were added up. In the following report the points are mentioned in the order of the number of checks which each received. Quotations from some of the essays are also given.

According to the essays written, the general reaction of the class to the textbook was favorable. Many members of the class definitely stated that the book was without exception the best of its kind they had ever used and some even recommended it for general reading.

One of the points most stressed was that the book had fully carried out its purpose. As one student wrote, "I think the book

has very adequately covered the functions of the government and has, by the simplicity and easy flow of words, made them easy to understand."

"The material is written in such a way that I did not have to re-read the chapter several times to discover the thought," is one of the typical statements commending the book for readability.

The fact that the book was concise and interesting and that, due to its sub-heads and divisions, it was a good reference, was also mentioned in many essays.

Many students expressed the belief that the book had given them a broader outlook, and others reported that since the use of the book there had been a marked improvement in their history work. One student wrote, "My homework assignments were made much shorter because of this book, and as a result I have had much more time for more detailed study."

The numerous illustrations and charts in the book were also mentioned favorably as were the summaries at the end of the chapters.

There was only one instance in which the book was criticized and that was because the particular student felt that it had been biased in its presentation of Communism and Fascism.

The only suggestion for improvement was that a service supplement be printed after a few

years to keep the book up to date. The student explained that he felt it would be a great loss if use of the book should be discontinued for want of a modern supplement.

The foregoing reports may not have the allegedly scientific values of Crompton's scale for evaluating history textbooks. But they have compensatory values in frankness and candor of evaluation as well as in criticism from the forgotten consumer.

SIDNEY N. BARNETT.
Richmond Hill High School.

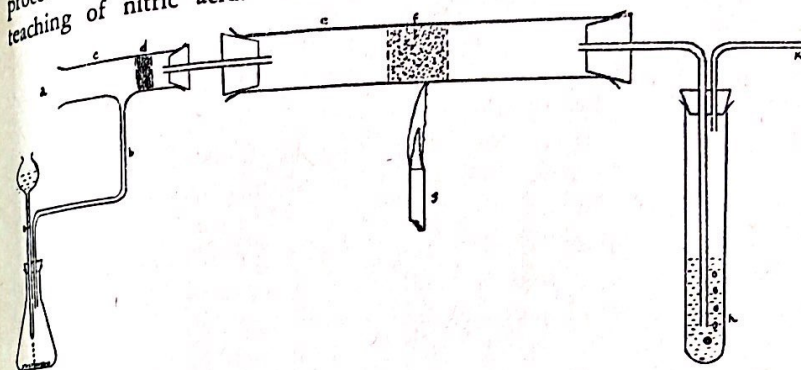
A CLASSROOM DEMONSTRATION OF THE OSTWALD PROCESS

According to present procedure the topic, fixation of nitrogen, is usually followed by the study of nitric acid. This is a logical sequence since it indicates the contribution chemistry has made toward converting the nitrogen of the air into useful compounds. The preparation of nitric acid is demonstrated by (1) the action of sulphuric acid upon a salt of the desired acid (sulphuric acid and a nitrate), and (2) the reaction between a non-metallic oxide and water (nitrogen peroxide and water). These two demonstrations are extremely useful in developing the scientific attitude and method but the latter presents an anachronism in industrial procedure. It is being superseded today by the Ostwald Process, i.e., the catalytic oxidation of ammonia to

nitric acid. It is proper therefore, that a demonstration of this process should supplement our teaching of nitric acid. Demon-

stration depends on the use of proper apparatus.

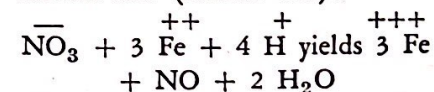
The demonstration apparatus is set up as shown in the diagram.



- a—inlet for air.
- b—inlet for oxygen prepared by the addition of water to sodium peroxide.
- c—a glass apparatus made by cutting symmetrically an ordinary U-tube with side arms.
- d—cotton soaked with ammonium hydroxide whose concentration is 90% of the stock ammonium hydroxide.
- e—a hard glass combustion tube about twelve inches in length.
- f—platinized asbestos prepared by mixing small pieces of platinum with asbestos matting.
- g—a Bunsen burner.
- h—a large glass test tube, one third filled with water.
- k—rubber tubing leading to suction.

The demonstration is performed as follows: (1) the platinum catalyst is heated for a minute, (2) the water is allowed to drop on the sodium peroxide in such a manner as to insure a slow but continuous flow of oxygen, (3) the suction is turned on, (4) the mixture of air, ammonia, and oxygen is drawn over the catalyst until a brown gas appears in the combustion tube, (5) the suction is stopped and the content of the large test tube is tested for nitric acid. The addition of saturated ferrous sulphate solution results in the formation of a deep brown coloration throughout the solution

before the sulphuric acid can be added. This may be explained from the following considerations. Nitrates are reduced to nitric oxide (NO) by adding an excess of an acid solution of a ferrous salt (ferrous ion):



The NO thus produced unites with the excess of ferrous ion, producing a dark brown color, presumed to be the complex ion,

$\text{Fe} \cdot \text{NO}^{++}$. The first of these two reactions takes place readily, even in a faintly acid solution, while the second requires the solution

to be rather strongly acid (i.e., a large excess of hydrogen ion). Since the dark brown color is formed immediately upon addition of ferrous ion, the demonstration probably produces a high concentration of hydrogen ion or therefore, nitric acid. On the other hand the brown ring test may be obtained by reversing the sequence of addition of the reagents. To one fourth of a small test tube of the acid produced an equal volume of concentrated sulphuric acid is added, the solution is mixed thoroughly and cooled. Freshly prepared ferrous sulphate solution is added carefully so that two layers are produced. At the point of contact of the two layers a brown ring is produced.

In addition to the fact that the Ostwald process is the method now current in industry, this demonstration gives ample opportunity for provocative questioning. The following questions may be asked to develop scientific habits of thinking: (1) What is the color of the gas in that part of the combustion tube adjacent to the large test tube? (2) Since

the gas is identified as nitrogen peroxide, how can you account for its formation from ammonia? This gives the teacher opportunity to develop the equation. (3) What method for making an acid is illustrated in this process? It may be noted at this point that the demonstration is sequential to the teaching of the Haber process, since it converts its product into a more useful form for certain applications.

It is well to bear in mind the following advice before using the apparatus for classroom demonstration. The catalytic activity of the platinum improves with use. When the reaction is first attempted the desirable results will not be attained. It is only after the platinum has been used at least ten different times are the results satisfactory. Don't be discouraged by the initial attempts. The preliminary attempts should be done outside of the classroom and only after the platinum has become sufficiently activated may the process be presented as a classroom demonstration.

ALEXANDER PADOW.

Boys High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

THE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM

The present situation in most of our schools requires positive action and remedial measures. Consider the attitude and experience of most pupils. A boy or a girl rushes from the official class

to a French class. Here pupils learn that French adjectives agree with the nouns they modify in number and gender. Hardly is this digested, when the bell rings and this pupil, erasing from his mind all French, rushes to a

mathematics class where he learns that verticle angles are equal. The bell rings and now he faces a history class. After that, an early lunch or a late breakfast. Then to an English class where he faces such words as "Hence, loathed melancholy of blackest midnight born." Pupils encountering Milton for the first time act as if they blundered into a foreign language class by mistake. From there to a science class or an economics class and then, as the case may be, to Health Education, Music or Art Appreciation.

The pupil, in his school career, meets with a series of isolated experiences. Each subject seems to be hermetically sealed in a separate germ-proof compartment. Careful precautions are taken by students not to permit any of the knowledge received in one class to overlap or spill out into another. To the student, English has no connection with science or economics; each is kept in its place and the facts will be forthcoming, he hopes, when he faces a quiz or an examination in that subject. When he concentrates in his economics class, he forgets history, English, science and everything else.

The writer once, in discussing business cycles, called upon the pupils' studies of the panics of the past, which they had taken up in history. A student, upon being questioned, indignantly replied that he was through with history;

he had already passed the Regents examination.

Most students, high school and college students, seem to regard the taking of subjects as a means toward credit or toward a diploma. Knowledge for its own sake, or knowledge gained in the classroom to last beyond examinations, motivates very few of our school population. What is left, then, after graduation but a diploma or a number of credits? What happens to all the aims and objectives which sound so inspiring when listed by a group of teachers? Some believe that a remedy for this situation is to wipe out dividing lines between subjects. They feel that the pupil should be prepared for life's situations and that the subject is merely a means to an end, not an end in itself. In other words, we teach human beings, not subjects, since life's situations are complex and inter-related. The subject matter of school should not be isolated into unrelated segments, but combined in a harmonious whole. This leads to the *integrated* or *core* curriculum.

Schools which are experimenting with or have been using this curriculum report many things in its favor. First, they say greater use is made of library facilities. Homework, which was formerly compulsory and not done, is now voluntary and is done. Teachers report that pupils voluntarily do very much outside work. Greater

flexibility results, since trips may be taken by a group without interfering with other subjects or teachers, as would happen in a departmentalized program. Pupils enjoy their work and do not regard an examination as the ultimate goal of knowledge. There is less truancy, and fewer cases of discipline arise.

In integrating a program, some schools combine subjects in a haphazard manner. For example, some will combine social sciences, physical sciences and English. Others combine mathematics and physical sciences, others combine only the social sciences and English and regard mathematics and languages as subjects for departmentalized treatment.

It seems also that some of the schools combine their subjects mainly on the basis of the individual abilities of their faculty. One school, for example, reported that the teachers volunteer to "tackle" certain subjects in one group.

The problems, as enumerated in the first few paragraphs, are grievous ones. The remedy supplied by these schools seems to be a happy solution. To the writer, however, there seem to be certain dangers and weaknesses in the integrated curriculum. This does not mean that these weaknesses, dangers, or disadvantages are sufficient to remove the advantages; however, they are of sufficient gravity not to be disregarded.

First, as compared with the present system, the work in most cases seems aimless. It is devoid of definite aims, objectives, or careful long-time planning. Principals have admitted that the trend of the lesson depends upon the direction that the work itself takes. In other words, a teacher starts with a topic or a problem not knowing what ramifications will come thereof, and in what direction it will ultimately lead.

Secondly, a teacher who "tackles" a variety of subjects depending upon his own interests, may be very versatile; but how expert is he in any field? At the present time most of us are specialists or experts in one or more fields with fairly thorough interests in other fields than our own. But the teacher who teaches English, social sciences (this includes American History, European History, economics, economic geography, civics, and economic citizenship) and physical sciences cannot but give a thin superficial treatment of these subjects. He himself, as was mentioned by a principal at a conference, "keeps a step ahead of his class." Therefore, such a teacher not only lacks intensive knowledge, but himself acquires a superficial veneer which is easily penetrated. In the writer's opinion there is a grave danger in this, because the person who lacks intensive, thorough graduate study in any field cannot understand the important im-

lications of the subject. Such a person is apt to emphasize wrong phases, to give misinformation, rely too heavily upon the printed word of the book, and be too easily satisfied with a thin treatment on the part of his pupils.

There are other objections which are quite important; the teacher under this plan must have an exceptional amount of enthusiasm and capacity for hard work. He must be above average in ability. Since there are teachers who are not above average in enthusiasm, ability, scholarship, capacity for hard work, ambition, and wholehearted interest in their pupils, the dangers of submitting the integrated curriculum to such teachers are greater than under the departmentalized system. There are in the integrated curriculum many opportunities for an unscrupulous teacher to "stall" or "soldier on the job."

It seems to the writer also, that this is a step backward; that in this type of curriculum and in this type of teacher and in this type of treatment of subject matter, we go back to the days of the "Hoosier School Master." The master at that time had to be somewhat of a disciplinarian. He had to know a little Latin, mathematics and literature; what he taught his pupils depended primarily upon the extent of his own education and also partly on his own interests. We must

not forget that our city schools are enormous, and for any large institution a highly efficient organization is necessary, or chaos will result. It is true that size is not an ideal or a goal, but it is at the present time a necessary evil, and we must face it.

There may be other solutions without some of the dangers; for example, the present departmentalized program does not prevent the high degree of correlation between subjects and their treatment. We need not forget that we are teaching pupils and that subjects are a means to an end, even though we teach only economics, history, or literature.

Perhaps the solution requires an adjustment of curricular and subject matter to the heterogeneous character of our school population, or perhaps a combination of the best elements of all remedies.

There is nothing in the present syllabus or curriculum which prevents good teaching. Good teaching and efficient supervision require that lessons be well-motivated, that illustrative material be used, that the work, especially in the social sciences, be concrete and meet with the pupils' experiences. Good teaching requires also that the teacher correlate his subjects with the rest of the high school curriculum and that he make full use of all the pupils' experiences within and outside the school. Good teaching also demands that the subject matter be

a means to an end, not the end itself. We, in the social sciences aim to achieve better citizenship, tolerance for the views of others, open-mindedness, and a healthful skepticism toward highly attractive schemes for economic reform. All this we should do now, even within our present departmentalized curriculum.

JACOB KLEIN.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

ABOUT THE TOPICAL INDEX OF "HIGH POINTS"

Copies of the new topical index to HIGH POINTS are still available to teachers who request them.

REVISED HISTORICAL VIEWPOINTS The Homestead Act

It can no longer be declared that under the Homestead Act the public domain was distributed freely to the people or that by 1890 it was exhausted. Two recent monographs show these beliefs to be erroneous.

P. W. Gates reveals that most of the land went to railroad companies and speculators.¹ This acquisition was legal in accord with the terms of the Homestead Act, and other measures. In addition to the clause for free distribution of lands to actual cultivators of five year residence the Homestead Act permitted lands to be bought

¹ Paul W. Gates: "The Homestead Act In an Incongruous Land System," *The American Historical Review*, Vol. XLI, No. 4, July, 1936, pp. 652-681.

directly from the government in straight cash sales and in cash sales at auction, and to be obtained through military warrants. Lands could also be obtained by purchase from the Indians after government treaty negotiation. In addition, lands could be obtained by the states under the terms of the Agricultural Land Act providing for land grant colleges.

Thus in accord with the above possibilities land was distributed between 1862 and 1890 as follows:

1. Over 125,000,000 acres to railroad companies.
2. Over 140,000,000 acres to the states under the Agricultural Land Act.
3. Over 100,000,000 acres sold in small or large blocks. Very little of this went to small purchasers.
4. Over 100,000,000 acres to railroad companies and speculators by treaty purchase from the Indians.
5. Only 48,225,736 acres up to 1890 went to supposedly bona fide settlers. (Only one-third of the Homesteaders remained long enough to perfect their entries.)²

The story of huge grants to railroads is more or less familiar, though probably it is not usually compared to that of the grants to Homesteaders. The story of acquisitions by speculators is prob-

² Fred A. Shannon: "The Homestead Act and the Labor Surplus," *ibid.*, pp. 637-651.

ably less familiar. Gates' findings may be of value to include here. He reveals that through the use of cash purchases, auction sales, military warrants and monopolists such speculators and monopolists as Chapman, Miller, Lux, Mitchell, Friedlander, for example, and others acquired 1,250,000 acres in California. In the sixties, in the same state, forty-three other speculators acquired 905,000 acres. Benjamin Wade and Thaddeus Stevens, champions of negro freedom, sponsored a bill which passed both houses of Congress, authorizing the sale from the public domain of 12,000 acres of timber and mineral lands, at \$1.25 an acre, to the New York and Montana Mining Corporation. In 1868 some Pottawatomie Indian lands were sold by the Federal Government to the Atchinson, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad on the following terms: 340,180 acres of rich agricultural lands, on credit, at six per cent interest, payable \$20,410 annually for five years, at the rate of one dollar an acre. In 1873, \$340,180, payable in greenbacks, was due. By this time the railroad company had already obtained \$646,784 in cash and notes from settlers, while the unsold remainder was valued at \$507,360. In the five annual interest payments and in the principal due in 1873 the railroads paid to the government only \$442,230. This brief account shows how great a profit there was in

railroad land grants. Speculators profited also from the Agricultural Land Act. Ezra Cornell, for example, received from New York State sufficient of its land warrants to locate 385,780 acres of land, mostly timber, in the Eau Claire, Wisconsin, district, and 121,000 acres in other states.

Despite the huge acquisitions by monopolists, railroads and speculators before 1890, there was no exhaustion of the public domain at that time. Shannon shows that more lands have been deeded by the Federal Government since 1910 than in the forty-eight years preceding the date.³

Western Lands and the Labor Safety Valve Theory

Turner, Paxson, Commons, Sombart, and others, have popularized a theory that the presence of vast unoccupied lands throughout American history have, until 1890, acted as a safety valve alleviating eastern labor discontent. Goodrich and Davidson, Shannon and Kane have recently shown that the theory is wholly, or partly, untrue.⁴ An examination of their findings,

³ *Idem*, Shannon, p. 638.

⁴ C. Goodrich and S. Davidson: "The Wage-Earner in the Westward Movement," *Political Science Quarterly*, L, June, 1935, pp. 161-185, and LI, March, 1936, pp. 61-116. Fred A. Shannon: "The Homestead Act and the Labor Surplus," *The American Historical Review*, Vol. XLI, No. 4, July, 1936, pp. 637-651. Murray Kane: "Some Considerations of the Safety Valve Doctrine," *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2, September, 1936, pp. 169-188.

in addition to a consideration of a rebuttal by Schafer,² leads to a conclusion that if the lands to the west of settlement acted as a safety valve, their effects upon labor could only have been indirect and not direct as the theory supposes. Shannon alone declares there was no effect, no safety valve.

It can no longer be said that the theory, if it worked, only worked up to 1890, "when the public domain was exhausted, for Shannon shows that by that time the public domain had hardly been touched. Land Office records in the Statistical Abstract of the United States for 1934 show that four times as many acres of homestead land have been deeded since 1890 as before that date, and that from 1862-1890 only 119,000,000 acres of land had been deeded to settlers, while since 1910 to 1933 over 237,000,000 acres have been deeded.

Shannon further concludes that the increase after 1865 of the laboring population and surplus (i.e. the unemployed) shows, along with the serious labor troubles from 1873-1895, that western lands did not solve labor problems. Shannon, referring to Gates' revelations of acquisition of public lands by speculators and monopolists, contends since so little of the public domain was distributed

² Joseph Schafer: "Was the West a Safety Valve for Labor?", *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, December, 1937, pp. 299-314.

freely that few of the eastern poor or unemployed laboring class could have gone west.

Goodrich and Davidson also no concern over the loss of any laboring population. Studies of western papers revealed that most migrants had been farmers; that the west in editorial and public letter was perennially hoping for skilled and unskilled labor which never arrived. A study of the records of emigrant societies showed little labor migration. Agricultural people formed the bulk of the New England Aid Society migrants to Kansas. A study of three thousand records of the heads of families sent out by the New York-Kansas League show that only ten per cent were wage-earners drawn chiefly from the small villages of New England, Greeley, Colorado, settled after 1869 by organized migration, had but nineteen per cent classified as wage-earners.

Kane repeats many of the above arguments. His chief point is based upon population studies for Massachusetts and Michigan for the years 1830-40. These show that during times of depression the eastern state retained its population though unemployment had mounted. He concludes that migration occurred chiefly in boom times and could not have drawn much upon labor at any time.

Shannon and others contend that the cost of transportation and of land purchase, and the disparity between the cost of living and

real wages, prevented the workman from saving enough to migrate west. Goodrich and Davidson submit two estimates for western migration by eastern labor. They sampled the evidence in the press of Massachusetts and several western states. The former, especially those of Fall River and one labor journal of the period around 1835-1850, indicate no evidence of mass labor migration; such costs, one ranging from six hundred dollars for a homesteader to over a thousand for one who purchased some land. The general assertions as to cost are countered by Schafer who asserts that the real wages were sufficient to enable a worker to save to journey west. He solves the dilemma of westward migration by the unemployed poor by asserting that they were aided by the private charity of his family, friends or relatives and by public charity.

Schafer's article attacked Goodrich and Davidson directly and the others indirectly. In support of his theory that the unoccupied lands were a safety valve for labor he cites the opinions of Franklin, Jefferson and Hamilton. In addition he quotes immigration statistics after 1820, federal censuses and local county histories of local individuals. These show that the craftsmen and laborers outnumbered the farmers in migrat-

ing from Europe; in 1880 fully one-third of the western farmers had earned their farms by working as craftsmen or laborers in the west. He also contends that the greatest migrations took place in times of depressions, citing the observations of foreign travelers, the rise of tolls in 1837 and 1838 on the National Road in Ohio and the increase in the filing of land claims in 1873 over those of 1836 in Milwaukee County, Wisconsin.

None of the writers settles the question as to when migrations were heavier, in boom or bad times; none settles the question as to whether labor or not was the greater element in migration, or whether the western lands really acted as a safety valve. Schafer declares that they did so act, while Shannon takes the opposite stand. He asks where was the safety valve after the Civil War when population on the farm fell off while that in the cities increased, while labor population increased faster than that of the farms despite the opening of the west, and serious labor troubles occurred in the period, 1870-1895?

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³ R. M. Robbins: "Pre-Emption: A Frontier Triumph," *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, Vol. XVIII, No. 1, June, 1931, pp. 331-349.

REVIEWS

PRINCIPLES AND TECHNIQUES OF CURRICULUM MAKING

By E. M. Draper. Appleton-Century.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

By H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell. American Book Company.

READINGS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

By H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell. American Book Company.

It is only within recent years that curriculum development has come into its own as a distinct and inescapable function of the educator. In its early stages, curriculum making was regarded as the esoteric province of the expert. The classroom teacher upon whom the successful execution of the curriculum depended was regarded as a necessary inconvenience. His desires and capabilities were infrequently consulted. But with the growing awareness of the need for democratizing the whole learning and teaching process, there has come a welcome recognition of the indispensable contribution that the classroom teacher has to make to the more or less abstruse meditations of the curriculum expert. The result has been that books on curriculum development have become increasingly more concrete and practical. The added realization that the making of a curriculum is more than a rhetorical exercise, more

than a something spun spider-like from the entrails of starry-eyed experts, has removed the incubus of unreality which has hovered so persistently over the older curricula. The curriculum today is seen as the instrument through which teacher and pupil realize themselves and their world with a maximum of vividness and intelligence. This newer conception of the curriculum as experience freighted with the accumulated social and personal insights of the race, places the curriculum maker in a highly strategic position. It also makes the teacher and administrator partners in the process.

These two recent volumes on curriculum development synthesize the most significant modern trends. Substantially, they cover the same ground: the social responsibility of the school in the contemporary world, the place of curriculum development in the whole scheme of things, the newer concepts of the curriculum, the principles of curriculum development, pupil purposes and the curriculum, the selection of appropriate pupil activities, grade placement and time allotment, teaching procedures, organization and evaluation of instruction and outcomes, and methods of administering the curriculum.

Both treatments are thorough and specific. Both show a fine

grasp of the implications of curriculum making and the practical exigencies that must be met. The Caswell and Campbell text seems preferable to us. Though shorter by some two hundred pages than the Draper, it has the virtue of conciseness of statement and of superior clarity of organization of material. The Draper volume has a vastly more extensive bibliography, though this is of questionable value except for the scholar. Draper is much more fruitful and more fully documented on the vexed matter of the "unit" of instruction.

"Readings in Curriculum Development" is a companion volume to Caswell and Campbell's "Curriculum Development." It consists of a wide and judicious selection of source material drawn from the utterances of curriculum experts. In attempting to cover such enormous areas, of necessity it takes on a certain sketchiness in spots. But, by and large, it makes solid and interesting reading.

These volumes should serve as an effective introduction to those curricular problems which are part of the daily routine of the teacher and administrator. Their eclecticism is of particular importance to the teacher who has not yet fallen prostrate before any particular educational deity. They will help to clarify and to focalize more sharply some of the crucial curricular problems of our day.

A. H. LASS.

HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS' METHODS

By C. E. Holley. Garrard Press, Champaign, Illinois, \$3.00.

The only excuse for another book on methods ought to be some unique contribution of a kind or at least a fresh organization of older materials.

Dr. Holley and his students who grubbed religiously in the Caverns of Methods have brought forth nothing startlingly new. There is a wealth of concrete, tested, usable material here, but it has for the greatest part appeared elsewhere more attractively tricked out and more persuasively presented. There is little here that cannot be found in Bossing, Douglass, and others who have surveyed general methods. The few kernels of hitherto undiscovered pedagogical sapience that Dr. Holley has brought forth do not merit the labor involved in wading through this whole text. This is not to say that Dr. Holley's work is wholly without merit. It is just undistinguished. It adds nothing radically new to our bag of tricks. Actually, it is even guilty of two glaring and almost unforgivable sins of omission. There is no indication here that Dr. Holley is aware of the immense importance that remedial reading has assumed of late. The recent stress on reading instruction particularly in the high schools, merits a chapter of comment. There is none here. Nor

is the matter of the slow learner, probably the most vexed and least understood of all, even mentioned. Certainly its significance in the whole educational scheme seems not to have found a place in Dr. Holley's neat little categories.

We submit that no respectable text on general methods can legitimately disregard these problems for they strike at the very root of the whole system and raise questions which no educator dare leave unanswered. The teacher who is not aware, at least, of the existence of these problems has not yet emerged into maturity. Dr. Holley's volume does precious little to hasten maturation in these two vital respects.

A. H. L.

HOW TO USE THE EDUCATIONAL SOUND FILM

By M. R. Brunstetter. Chicago University Press, \$2.00.

This is an invaluable little book for all who use or contemplate the use of the sound film as an adjunct to the traditional recitation process. Dr. Brunstetter has here made a vitally important contribution in indicating the uses to which sound films can be put in the schools. He has translated the findings of the mechanical expert into educational terms and concepts. He cautions, and not unwisely, against allowing the sound film to become an end in itself. Fully cognizant that in the hands of inept administrators or over-

enthusiastic teachers, it may become only a fascinating plaything, he urges throughout that the educational talkie be carefully integrated with the curriculum. Any use other than this perverts the educational process and reduces the efficacy of the film as a vivid supplementary force in education. Dr. Brunstetter's counsel as educator and technical expert deserves careful attention.

So far as we know, this volume is the most complete treatment of its kind available. It lists sound-film materials for instructional purposes, points out the teaching purposes which can be thus served, analyses in great detail techniques for teaching with sound films, and suggests methods for organizing an audio-visual instructional program. There are additional chapters on the training of teachers in the use of the sound film and the mechanical and routine aspects of the process.

While no one except a few dewy-eyed and addled visionaries see the sound-film replacing the teacher, it must be obvious to all that science has here given us an instrument which can, if properly utilized, contribute much of significance to education. It is Dr. Brunstetter's signal achievement that he has shown how it can be done without making a farce of education. He has given point and dignity to what is still regarded as a frill or an aberration.

A. H. L.

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INTEGRATION AS A MAJOR FUNCTION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND THE ROLE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

In a recent article by Avis D. Carlson published in *Harpers*, there appeared a report of an interesting experiment.¹ In 1935, a teacher decided to discover just how much our high school students knew about their contemporary world. She invented a series of tests, and gave them to some twelve thousand high school students. Let the article speak for itself in summarizing the results:

"After three years when Franklin Roosevelt had been the most discussed person in the Western Hemisphere and perhaps in the world, 1 per cent of those high school students could not name the President. Only 22 per cent of them knew that Stalin is a dictator. When asked the official position of Cordell Hull, less than one-third of them could produce the right answer. Only 20 per cent could identify Pierre Laval (then a figure in the news), 9 per cent Stanley Baldwin, and 3 per cent Maxim Litvinoff. Twenty per cent did not know that Russia is Communist, and 40 per cent did not know that Germany is Fascist. When they were asked to select from a list of political character-

istics those applicable to Communism, Fascism, and Democracy, their answers were little short of disgraceful."

If these results may be regarded as valid and typical, what do they signify? First, they indicate an appalling ignorance and apathy on the part of our high school students to the important problems connected with contemporary social movements and personalities. Second, they indicate that American high school students are being insufficiently integrated in the basic knowledge, attitudes, and ideals, which should be part of their equipment if they are to participate intelligently in American democratic life. Third, they indicate that the teachers of the Social Studies have a large task awaiting them in the realization of a major objective of education—social integration.

In a bulletin recently published by the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association,² there appeared a rather extended discus-

¹"Can the Schools Save Democracy?" by Avis D. Carlson, April, 1937.

²Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the N.E.A. *Functions of Secondary Education*, Report of the Committee on Orientation of Secondary Education, Vol. 21, Jan. 1937, No. 34.

sion of the functions of secondary education. A committee, headed by Thomas H. Briggs, had been appointed to conduct a thorough investigation into the major objectives of secondary education. After a protracted period of study, the committee made its report. This consisted of a list of what it regarded as the ten basic functions of American high school education, discussed by various experts in the field.

It is with the first function, as stated by the committee, that this article is concerned. It is worded as follows: "To continue by definite program, though in a diminishing degree, *the integration* of students. This should be on an increasingly intellectual level until the desired common knowledge, appreciations, attitudes, and practices are fixed."

The purpose therein is two-fold: first, to inquire whether the above is a valid statement of one of the major functions of secondary education; second, if so, what we as teachers, particularly of the Social Studies, may do to realize this objective of education more adequately.

Before embarking upon this discussion, perhaps the meaning of the word "integration" ought to be clarified. "Integration," like so many words newly coined in our educational mints, is chameleon-like in usage, now employed to

mean one thing, now another. Four different meanings of the word have indeed been identified. Thus, in the Bulletin on the Issues of Secondary Education, the following meanings of integration are given:

- "1. Social integration, or the unifying of the social group in the interest of social coöperation.
2. The intellectual integration of the individual; the co-ordination of his developed abilities for a maximally efficient unit.
3. The emotional integration of the individual; the complement of the individual's intellectual integrations; the organization of his motives.
4. Integrated courses; cross grouping of subject matter."³

The word "integration" as used in this article will be limited to the first meaning as given above, namely, to the unification of the group. This implies the propagation of certain common attitudes, ideals, and information to be shared by all of our students. That is the sense in which it is used by the Briggs Committee in its discussion of the first major function of secondary education. The emphasis, it will be noted, is on

³ Bulletin of the Department of the Secondary School Principals of the N.E.A. *Issues of Secondary Education*, Report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education, Vol. 20, Jan. 1936, No. 59.

uniformity and group unification. This does not mean that provision for differentiation should be disregarded. The importance of a rich and varied curriculum adapted to individual differences is well realized. However, just now the Committee feels there is great need for stressing uniformity in certain of our educational outcomes. Whatever provision for variety or differentiation is introduced into our curriculum should be based, it is contended, on a solid substratum of *common* knowledge, attitudes, and practices.

The dangers inherent in a program of integration must be fairly apparent. An educational program which stresses uniformity runs the danger of creating a goose-stepping citizenry, all echoing the same ideas. It is not without significance that the main aim of education in European dictatorships is precisely social uniformity and integrated citizenship. Professor Merriam points out that in authoritarian states the schools are used as integrating forces to keep the masses docile and obedient. The question then arises, can integration be a valid aim of education in a democracy?

Integration necessarily implies indoctrination—the implanting of identical knowledge, attitudes and ideals in the minds of the student body. And as Merriam demonstrates, totalitarian states are unusually adept at stamping in their twisted ideologies, while as yet

democracies have been egregiously callous to the need of inculcating their own fundamental ideas. Since integration is one of the major functions of education in totalitarian states, it is apparent that we cannot accept it as a basic objective of American education, unless we ask the pertinent question: integration to what end? And in the discussion of this function, Will French, writing for the Briggs Committee, gives the answer. It is integration for the purpose of unifying the American citizenry in the knowledge and attitudes that inhere in the concept of Democracy. Herein lies the difference between the ideal of integration as interpreted and applied in totalitarian states and the concept of integration as understood in a democracy. In both cases, however, the ideal implies a conscious indoctrination for the realization of their respective ends. Superintendent John Walton of Manchester, Ohio, in an article entitled "Education for Democracy," appearing in the October issue of *Social Education*, has well summarized the case for indoctrination in a democracy.

"Our society, in that it supports education, can reasonably expect indoctrination in democracy in the public schools of this country . . . Indoctrination in democratic principles of government does not mean the exclusion of the good in other forms of government, but that

democracy will be able to stand on its own merits in a fair examination of all the facts relevant to government."

Is there a need for integration in a democracy? More so, perhaps, than in a dictatorship. In a dictatorship the power is focused in one person or group. What the people think is unimportant. Whatever independent ideas they have is so much thought wasted. The only purpose of integration here is to foster a blind loyalty to the leader.

In a democracy, the situation is different. The ultimate power of government is with the people. It is of paramount importance that they be well informed on matters of contemporary significance. It is important that they be integrated in those common attitudes and ideals wrapped up in the idea of Democracy.

Democracies, unlike dictatorships, are dynamic and ameliorative in purpose. The goal is not only the good life, but the better life. Hence, it is doubly important that the ultimate power—the people—be thoroughly capable of coping, in a harmonious manner, with important social problems. As Will French declares: "Wise decisions on the part of the public as to what are desirable directions of change and general agreement upon acceptable means of procedure thus calls for a high level of integrating education."

It follows, therefore, that the type of integration needed in a democracy will differ radically from the regimentation demanded in a dictatorship. In the latter case, the purpose of education is to turn out a standard product—like Ford cars—all honking the same horn, and returning the same echo. In a democratic state, the desideratum is not the rigid indoctrination of students by means of identical knowledge and opinions, but rather the fostering of a similarity of *attitudes* and *ideals*. Because of the very nature of democracy, with its belief in free speech, tolerance, religious freedom, and the like, the product of its type of education can never be a robot-like standardization—but, rather, in the words of Harry Overstreet, "an integration of differences." Within a common framework of accepted democratic ideals shared by all, free play will and must be given to differences of opinion.

In brief, then, it is one of the major functions of secondary education to inculcate in our students those attitudes and that knowledge which will tend to perpetuate democracy. Of course, it is not always easy to determine just what attitudes inhere in the ideal of Democracy. Perhaps that should be the next big job of a reputable, socially minded, and progressive group of educators and teachers. Before we can integrate the student body in the ideals of

democracy we must have a generally agreed upon set of standards. Therein lies, at least for the present, the greatest practical weakness of the integration function of education. However, it is not as serious as it may appear. Certainly, without an extended investigation, few teachers will doubt that such attitudes as tolerance, fair play, suspended judgment, critical mindedness, and the like, are valid concomitants of the concept of Democracy. Our integration program, to start with, should therefore concern itself with the inculcation of these attitudes, not unconsciously and as a by-product, but consciously and as a definite phase of the educative process. If democracy is to remain a force in a world of clamorous dictatorships, the school must take its perpetuation to heart. In the words of the Commissioner of Education, John W. Studebaker: "If we fail to meet the crucial issues of maintaining democracy, of increasing popular confidence in the value and efficiency of self-government, it will make little difference what we have done about other problems."

In the push toward this goal, every subject in the curriculum has a contribution to make. Probably, as is to be expected, the Social Studies will be called upon to carry the heaviest load. It is with this responsibility in mind that certain educators have been clamoring for a reorganization of

the curriculum with the Social Studies as a core. Without entirely adopting this point of view, the fact remains that much can be done by the teachers of the Social Studies under our present curricular set-up. The following is a brief program of what the Social Studies can and should contribute to the integration of students along democratic lines.

First on the program, is the inculcation of the attitude of tolerance. History is replete with thousands of incidents from which striking lessons on the need for tolerance can be drawn. Our students must learn to respect other opinions, other people, other social groups. While democracy rests on the principle of majority rule, it nevertheless provides safeguards for the rights of the minority, and our students must learn to respect those rights. Not only should they learn about tolerance but, wherever possible, they should be encouraged to live tolerance in the very classroom, school, and community. Unfortunately, there is a marked gap between the theory of democracy and its practice, as witness the treatment of the negro in the South. It should be one of our tasks to eliminate this gap.

Second in our program, is the cultivation of critical-mindedness. In a dictatorship, the ideal is just the opposite. Students are encouraged neither to question nor to challenge what they read or hear. In a democracy, the minds

of the people must be sharpened and made critical. They must learn to accept nothing on blind faith. They must be led to discriminate between fact and fiction, between truth and propaganda. This will require training in the use of newspapers and periodicals, and the presentation of problems requiring reflective thought.

Third in our program, is the direct teaching of the meaning and advantages of democracy. In their history work, our students will be brought to realize that the road to democracy was a long and bloody one. Pointed comparisons might well be made, without twisting one iota of truth, between the rights and condition of the masses under dictatorships and under democracies. Moreover, it should be pointed out that democracy is not merely a political concept, but implies also certain important ideals of social and economic justice.

Fourth in the program, is the teaching of the interdependence of nations. Much of the hatred and sorrow in the present world proceeds from the essentially undemocratic concept of narrow nationalism. In the teaching of the Social Studies there are many opportunities to point out that the world today is an interdependent unit. No nation is self-sufficient in the sense that it can achieve a maximum degree of group happiness without the help of other nations. This does not mean that

the teaching of patriotism should be neglected. On the contrary, the entire program which is here presented attempts to foster that healthy love and appreciation of country which comes with the fullest group participation in democratic life. But it must be remembered that a healthy love of country is not incompatible with a decent respect for other groups, national, racial, or religious.

Fifth in our program, is the presentation of a realistic view of the contemporary world—its problems, phobias, panaceas, and personalities. There must be no burrowing of the pedagogic head in the sand. There must be no fear of bringing students face to face with real problems, no matter how controversial in nature. Democracy, said a recent writer, can well afford to be "put to the test in the crucible of adolescent minds with full faith that it will remain fundamentally unaffected by the acids of communism and fascism and that it will emerge all the brighter with the tarnish of the last fifteen years dissolved." The presentation, in a fair-minded way, of the social strains and stresses will only sharpen the students' social perspective, without impairing, by one jot, their faith in democracy. The danger lies, rather, in ignoring realities, for sooner or later, our students, without adequate training in coping with controversial questions, will become the easy prey of raucous dema-

gogues and false prophets. In the words of Avis D. Carlson: "A future citizen has a right, and a democratic state which wishes to perpetuate itself dare not deny it to him, to know about the tensions and conflicts and indecisions racking modern society."

There is much more that can be accomplished in the teaching of the Social Studies in the way of social integration for the democratic life. But the above constitutes a minimum program which we can begin to put into effect immediately. Many of the recommendations here made have long been part of our educational ob-

jectives, but attempts to realize them have been made only in an incidental fashion and without definite articulation with a larger program of integration. The time has come to bend every effort to the realization of the above aims. Democracy is at the crossroads. Ill winds from other climes blow in to shake the structure. As long as education stands firm in its support, the dictatorial Aeoluses may blast and fume and rock the superstructure, but the foundation will remain secure.

ABRAHAM H. MARGOLIES.

Evander Childs High School.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES LABORATORY

A Program of Enrichment for the Superior Social Studies Student

Although the necessity of providing the gifted high school student with a social studies curriculum suitable to his intellectual powers and his future position in society has long been recognized, little progress has heretofore been made in this direction in the public high schools. The difficulty has not been in recognizing the problem, but in deciding upon a procedure which would fit into the crowded curriculum and limited physical structure of the high schools. The lack of adequate equipment and the failure to devise a pedagogically sound *modus*

operandi have thus far been the major deterring factors. A partial solution to the problem has been achieved at the Tilden High School through the establishment of a Social Studies Laboratory.

This laboratory was organized by converting a regular classroom into a socialized teaching and study room. The changes made aimed to create a room as functionally adequate for the study of history and related subjects as physical science laboratories are made suitable for their purposes. This room, set aside by the school administration for this purpose,

was equipped with three small but fully enclosed interview booths erected on one side of the room for private conferences. Desks and chairs fastened to the floor were replaced by moveable chairs which can now be arranged to suit the occasion. Blackboard space has been reduced to the amount usually necessary for history recitations. The remaining blackboard area, covering two sides of the room had been covered by beaver board material to be used for posting items of historical interest. A number of bookcases were installed along the sides of the room and filled with a select collection of specially purchased secondary works in the social sciences. Such authors as James Truslow Adams, Charles M. Andrews, John Spencer Bassett and Charles A. Beard are represented, and such historical series as the "Chronicles of America," the "History of American Life," the "Jacket Library," and others were included. A group of periodicals reaching back a number of years and illustrating different points of view such as the *Nation*, the *New Republic*, *Current History* and *Political Science Quarterly* had also been added. Those articles which could be used in the courses of study had been catalogued. A table with recent periodicals had also been installed for special reading.

In order to provide the proper atmosphere, the room was pro-

fusely illustrated with historical material. However, the common error of "slapstick bulletin board" was avoided by making each side of the room illustrate a single definite and continuous problem in its various aspects. Some of the displays which have been used include the following: Progress—newspaper headlines illustrating the development of science and invention; Unemployment—its causes, its results, its widespread character and possible solutions; Imperialism—the areas involved and the reasons for it; Writers of History—pictures of our modern historians, their works and their thoughts on history writing; What to Read—illustrated by book jackets of recent books published in the field of history; Propaganda—methods and examples. For general atmosphere, wall murals illustrating the different phases of our national industrial and social life were drawn by students. These physical changes in the room were accomplished with funds obtained in part from the school General Organization, but mainly from the proceeds of the annual History Faculty-History Club baseball game conducted by the Social Science department. Two free periods at the end of each day were set aside for the use of this room by any students and teachers who wish to use it. In addition, a teacher was placed in charge of the room during these periods as a general overseer and

administrator.

The Social Studies Laboratory, as a unit of the Social Science department, was established for a three-fold purpose: (1) to provide proper facilities for the teaching of special classes in the social studies, (2) to provide a room where teachers and student may meet informally in an atmosphere conducive to historical thinking, and (3) to establish a nexus between the teachers of the subject and the teaching materials which the department has at its disposal for classroom use.

(1) The laboratory and all its facilities are used by special social studies classes of the school during regular sessions and by all students taking history after regular sessions are over. The special classes include a laboratory course in first term American history open only to students who have been recommended by their former history teachers; another laboratory course in second term American history open to the students who have done satisfactory work in the first laboratory course and others recommended by teachers; and, finally, a special course in Problems of American Democracy, open only to seniors who have completed all courses in required history and have been recommended for the subject. Students who begin the first laboratory course usually continue in the others, a few dropping out and a few others replacing them. It

is not the purpose of this article to describe the procedure by which these special classes use the materials of the laboratory. Briefly however, they are guided by the following principles: little or no reliance on high school text-books, almost complete socialized student activity in class, predominance of committee work and student class reports, and the use of periodicals and secondary works for information.

This effort to give the gifted student an opportunity for development commensurate with his abilities has not been achieved solely through the efforts of those directly in contact with these students. In a high school running on a capacity student load, it has required the planning and coöperation of administrative officials, the arrangement of special "singleton" subjects by program committees and the willingness of teachers in the subject to carry increased registrations in regular classes so that special classes may have small registrations.

(2) After regular sessions of the special classes are over, the Social Studies Laboratory is open to regular teachers and their students for a variety of purposes. Teachers may interview, in private, students who show classroom weaknesses or who are making oral book reports. Special committees appointed in different classes to do extra work such as arrange

debates or projects, may meet here to plan their work and obtain assistance and guidance. The History Club program committees meet here to plan club programs. Meetings of teacher committees to discuss assignment problems, uniform examinations, courses of study and text-books to be used are held here. Some students also come to work on special projects such as murals which are too large to prepare at home. While students are waiting for their interviews they are at liberty to browse through the periodicals or books on the shelves. No books may be borrowed from the room except on special occasions since the regular school library is available for that purpose. This policy is followed in order to keep the class library intact for the work of special classes on the following day. The pupils are also entirely free to move about the room looking at charts, cartoons, maps, items on new books, current plays and motion pictures of historical interest, model homework books and book reports, former history projects and other historical realia. Students who wish to prepare projects for their classes may come to this room for materials and suggestions. All of the activities here described can proceed in the room at the same time because of the specially enclosed booths, the moveable character of the furniture, and the presence not only of teachers meeting students,

but a special administrator to keep things running smoothly.

(3) In order to avoid the waste of time, effort and materials resulting from haphazard use of illustrative motivating and enrichment items, the Social Studies Laboratory has been made the storage and distribution center for such materials. The items available to teachers for distribution include the following: (A) Visual Aids, which have been reproduced, collected and mounted by students of the Social Studies Laboratory staff. The most important of these aids are problem maps obtained from newspapers or made by students; cartoons reproduced and enlarged from those appearing in newspapers or devised by students themselves; enlarged and mounted diagrams, charts and graphs obtained from newspapers or books or developed by students and teachers; large pictures usually obtained from public and private organizations; original and photostatic newspaper articles and front pages; models, book jackets and pictures from historical photoplays. (B) Non-Visual Aids, which have been collected by the director of the Laboratory through contributions of teachers. The most important of these aids are statistical tables illustrating specific topics in the courses of study; brief quotations on all topics suitable for motivations, enrichment and the framing of problem questions; and ex-

cerpts from important documents that can be used in the classroom. Both the visual and non-visual aids in the Laboratory are divided into subject units and these into topics, each available for inspection by teachers at the time they are being taught.

The entire program outlined above has been functioning for about one year. Much of the work

is, therefore, still in the experimental stage and much of it will require reorganization, revision and an improved technique. Nevertheless, the problem which impelled the organization of the Laboratory is finding a solution satisfying to both students and teachers.

SOL PIKHOLT.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

READING UNIT ON SOCIAL SERVICE

In preparing a reading unit on social service for the first year student, some central problem is necessary. The field of civics is preferable because it introduces him simply and readily to social service. In city planning and the conditions which it seeks to improve, a familiar and vital problem is brought home immediately to the student. He wants to know how these conditions are being met with now. Enter the social service agencies. Realistic reading matter of warm, human interest is selected. Lively magazine articles, fresh, truthful, most readily claim his attention.

In justification for "yet another" reading unit, let me point out that certain characteristic shortcomings of other units have been avoided. The motivation is derived from a vital (perhaps a personal) problem and not from reading scores and the comprehension of obvious reading skills.

The reading material, questions and discussion, all lead to a definite, practicable project which is logically related to the student's curricular interests. The several passages for reading are integrated one with the other by a logical sequence and continuity. The student does not have to read in a textbook, or from a mimeographed sheet. Finally, the unit is planned to be read in a week, at the end of which period the student will have derived a well-rounded concept of one phase of his existence in a significant and practical manner.

The unit which follows is for the teacher's use; to be supplemented by the required copies of the Readers Digest for the reading material and mimeographed copies of the questions and word study for the students' use. The teacher should not hesitate to elaborate the suggested motivation and discussion with questions of

his own. It is not the writer's intention to prepare stereotyped formulae for the teacher.

Similar units based on amusements, art and culture, literature, and history are also in preparation by the Remedial Reading Project in the Abraham Lincoln High School. Some have already been completed and are available to those teachers who are interested in this new approach to a basic problem in English instruction. Comments from teachers who have written, or intend writing, units in reading are desirable.

READING UNIT ON SOCIAL SERVICE MOTIVATION

The first duty or obligation of every government is to take care of its citizens. For example, the municipal or city government provides hospitals, clinics, parks, community centers, and other forms of free treatment and recreation for those who are unable to pay. This is known as public service.

But in a large city, such service is never enough to meet the needs of a large, poor population. As a result, private agencies, privately supported, have to supplement, or add to, these free services. This form of help is known as social service. Some examples of this are the American Red Cross, the Boys' Clubs, the Visiting Nurse Association, the Henry Street Settlement, etc. Let us read about some of them.

PASSAGE FOR READING

"When a Feller Needs a Friend"
(*Readers Digest*, Sept., 1936).

QUESTIONS

1. Have you heard of the Big Brothers and Big Sisters before?
2. Do you belong to a Boys' Club or a similar organization in your neighborhood?
3. According to the article you have just read, what is the effect of prison or reformatory on these juvenile delinquents?
4. Would you do away with reformatories? If not, how would you improve them?
5. Do you know the name of the man who organized the Big Brother movement?
6. How long has this movement been going on?
7. Do you agree that such an organization saves the taxpayer much money? How?
8. You have probably seen the movies "The Devil Is a Sissy" and "Dead End." Do you know of boys who have had similar histories? With the help of those motion pictures and the article you have just read and your own experiences, can you now explain the importance of environment in a boy's development?

9. Make a list of the bad conditions mentioned in the article. How would you improve some of them? How have some of them been improved by the city? by social service agencies?
10. Have you faced any of these bad situations? Did you ever get into trouble? What did you do about it?

WORD STUDY

Some of the words in the article may have puzzled you. Did you know that *malicious* is a synonym for *mean*, *squabbling* means *quarrelling*, a *delinquent* is a *wrong-doer*? Can you define the following words?

unremunerated	incessant
sentimental	arbitrated
drones	wrought
moralizes	outpost
sponsor	juvenile

SUGGESTED READING

If you are really interested in the subject of juvenile delinquency, why don't you try reading:

1. The Dangerous Life—Lindsey, B. B.
2. Up from the City Streets—Smith, Alfred E.
3. Boy and Girl Tramps of America.

CONTINUITY AND MOTIVATION

You remember we mentioned that the American Red Cross is

another example of social service. You have surely seen the well-known Red Cross button. This world-famous organization is of special value in times of great disasters. Do you remember the great floods we had in 1936 and the work the Red Cross did in those afflicted areas? Of course, someone had to start that organization, too. Shall we read about the "American Florence Nightingale," Clara Barton?

PASSAGE FOR READING

Clara Barton: Crusader (*Readers Digest*, Aug., 1937).

QUESTIONS

1. In how many wars was Clara Barton a nurse?
2. Can you name at least three peacetime disasters in which her newly-organized American Red Cross served?
3. What similar organization existed before the American Red Cross?
4. During what president's administration was the American Red Cross organized?
5. How is the American Red Cross supported?
6. Do you know what the national flag of Switzerland is? Do you know why Clara Barton chose a red cross on a white field for the emblem of her organization?

7. Who is the president of the American Red Cross today?
8. Can you explain why Clara Barton is called the "American Florence Nightingale?"
9. Who was known as the "stormy petrel" during the Civil War? What is a stormy petrel?
10. Can you name another national organization for social service which is like the American Red Cross?
15. reluctant—
16. precedence—preference
17. improvised, formulated—or.
18. neutrality—

SUGGESTED READING

You can learn much more about Clara Barton and other remarkable women by reading a few of the books your librarian will be glad to give you:

1. Heroines of Modern Progress—Adams, E. C.
2. Causes and their Champions—Howe, M. A. DeW.
3. Heroes of Progress in America—Morris, C.
4. Jane Addams of Hull House—Wise.

CONTINUITY AND MOTIVATION

Let us turn back to local problems. You read in the first article about the effect poor environment has upon children and even grown-ups. Again, think of the picture "Dead End." Did it remind you of the slums in our own city? Did you ever visit the East Side, Harlem, Hell's Kitchen, the Red Hook section? Who takes care of so many poor, wretched, hungry people? Well, the city provides relief and free hospitals. The federal government is helping many American cities in clearing away slums. But that isn't enough. Have you ever taken a trip down to the East Side? Go to Henry Street. Visit the Henry Street Settlement, and read about, "The Woman Who Never Gives Up."

WORD STUDY

You can improve your vocabulary if you will take your dictionary now and find the meanings of the words below. We have given you the meanings of some of them already. By adding the full list to the words you have learned from the previous article, you should have the beginning of a fine vocabulary.

1. compassionate—sympathetic
2. hobbledehoy—
3. precocious—very smart
4. humanitarian—
5. prostration—exhaustion, weariness
6. catastrophes—
7. frugality—thriftiness
8. presentiment—
9. credentials—
10. queues—lines of people
11. wavered—
12. morbidly—
13. intellect—the mind
14. elapsing—

PASSAGE FOR READING

The Woman Who Never Gives Up (Readers Digest, Aug., 1936).

QUESTIONS

1. Who has been called "the greatest single contributor to the public health of America?"
2. Besides founding the Henry Street Settlement and the Federal Children's Bureau, she founded a third organization. Do you know its name?
3. Who was the "powerful ally" of Lillian D. Wald?
4. In Chicago, Jane Addams founded what social service institution four years before the Visiting Nurse Service?
5. Why was Lillian D. Wald called a Red in 1917?
6. Do you approve of her opinion? Why?
7. How does the Henry Street Settlement add to the work of the Big Brother movement?
8. How does the Visiting Nurse Service compare with the work of the American Red Cross?
9. In what way does the Henry Street Settlement get financial support?
10. Do you have a settlement house in your neighborhood? Do you need one?

WORD STUDY

More words! Some of them easy, some of them hard. But if you remember how they were used in the article you have just read, they should be easy. If not, —well, take your dictionary, and remember, it pays to be a man of your word.

1. cardiac
2. alleviate
3. untutored
4. precedent
5. inevitable
6. sophisticated
7. sulked
8. caustic
9. reproof
10. impoverished

SUGGESTED READING

By all means read "Windows on Henry Street," by Lillian D. Wald, and "Jane Addams of Hull House!"

CONTINUITY AND MOTIVATION

If you liked the story about the "Woman Who Never Gives Up" and would like to read how the Visiting Nurse Service works, let us spend a day with one of these nurses. The scene takes place in New York City and is full of real life drama. But wait, read it yourself.

PASSAGE FOR READING

"The Hospital That Walks Up-

stairs" (*Readers Digest*, November, 1937).

QUESTIONS AND WORD STUDY

Underline the *one* correct answer of the four given in parentheses.

1. In New York City on an average day (140,000 — 2,000 — 4,000,000 — 112,000) citizens are sick.
2. (265 — 10,000 — 50 — 26,000) young women work for the Visiting Nurse Service.
3. They make (half a million — half a dozen — hardly any — twenty thousand) calls a year.
4. Each nurse makes an average of (eight — eighteen — eleven — ten) calls a day.
5. The first non-sectarian nursing service in this city was founded by (Florence Nightingale — Lillian D. Wald — Carrie Nation — Evangeline Booth) nearly (50 — 32 — 17 — 44) years ago.
6. There are more than (21,000 — 22,000 — 20,000 — 30,000) individual nurses scattered across the country engaged in public health work.
7. Some patients are expected to pay (\$1.25 — \$2.25 — \$.75) a visit.
8. Select the *one* nationality in the following which was not visited by the nurse

(Polish — Italian — Spanish — Hungarian — Jewish).

9. A few foreign expressions were used in the article. For example:

"Mama! Mama! La nodriza está aquí!" which means, "Mother! Mother! The nurse is here!"
"Buenos días" which means, "Hello."

Can you guess what these two expressions mean?

"Adiós, Señora! Adiós, chicos!"

"Paquilla! Paquilla!"

10. Select the correct synonym for the following words:

a. cluttered — crowded, crooked, clean.

b. gamin — cat, child, canary.

c. ominous — threatening, thirsty, thick.

d. capacious — large, long, little.

e. antiseptic — clean, candid, corrupt.

f. brunt — basket, bugle, burden.

g. competent — careful, capable, clipped.

h. slovenly — dingy, dusky, dirty.

i. eradicated — enlarged, erased, exempt.

j. deft — skillful, soundless, sick.

k. ritual — ceremony, cellar, cemetery.

l. exasperating — aiding, answering, annoying.

m. persecution — temptation, torture, texture.

n. complex — bias, brunt, burden.

o. sheaf — book, broom, bunch.

PROJECT ASSIGNMENT (MOTIVATION)

From the reading you have done you should now have a very clear idea of what social service is. In your civics class you learned about public service. Bear in mind that in a democracy social service and public service combine to improve the community. Of course, we prefer public service alone because that means that our government is able to take care of its citizens.

As a good citizen, you, too, have some obligations. You should cooperate with your government to make your community a better, more beautiful place in which to live. Would you like to help? Try this simple project:

Pretend that you have been asked to serve on a city planning commission. You and your associates are to plan a better community. Get a large sheet of paper

about thirty-six inches square, a few sharp-pointed pencils, an eraser, ruler, compass, and some colored crayons. You are now almost ready to draw your plan of the new community. But, perhaps you need a little help; do you? Spend about thirty minutes reading the section on City Planning in "Our City—New York" (pages 242-256). Let's see. Where will you locate the business district, the residential district, schools, hospitals, parks and playgrounds, libraries, the civic center. And how about the streets? Will they run perpendicular, diagonal, spider web fashion? What type of houses will you build? Will they be private houses, apartment houses, both types? Remember, we want no slums, no "dead ends". Give us sufficient light and air! Above all, avoid repeating all the miserable conditions we have read about. Finally, keep in mind that we want an ideal community without poverty, without overcrowding, without further need for the social services we have read about. Can you do it? You can if you are a good citizen! It's a challenge!

SAMUEL BECKOFF.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

WHY ARE WE DOING NOTHING CONSTRUCTIVE FOR OVER FIFTY PER CENT OF OUR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS?

For several years many of the thoughtful, earnest teachers in our high schools, those who aim to get into close touch with their pupils, to be real educators and not mere instructors, have bemoaned the fact that nothing constructive is done for half or more of our high school pupils. It is a fact that approximately fifty per cent of those who enter high school, neither graduate nor complete the course; it is also probably true (though I do not have the actual figures) that, of those who graduate, not more than half go to college. Thus we have in our high schools fifty per cent "temporary pupils" and another twenty-five per cent for whom the high school is the last formal educational experience. For the former, no carefully planned achievement has been devised, and for the latter a more or less useful list of subjects has been placed at their disposal. These conditions have obtained for some time but have recently become much more serious owing to the added influx of a new type of pupil, developed by the depression and, more recently, to the age restrictions imposed by the State Education Law.

Our high school system is a very

large one and many administrators, caught in the meshes of red tape and details, must be satisfied to let things ride as they are. Why stir up trouble? Therefore, as the high schools *were originally planned some thirty-five years ago, so they remain to a very great extent today.*

Originally the high schools were conceived as preparatory schools leading to college. One does not need to look very far back to recall the time when there were only five or six high schools in the city, sending almost all of their graduates to college. I can well remember what a furore was created when the High School of Commerce was conceived and opened.

"The first of its kind!" But it too soon became ambitious to see its graduates go to college. The high school course of study was built so as to meet requirements for entrance to college. Since then the syllabus of one department or another has been revised at different times, but consciously or subconsciously, the original object was kept in mind: admission to college. The college entrance requirements seem to enthrall our administrators, so much so that even manual training and commercial

high schools keep a weather eye out for them, and their principals hail with joy and pride the fact that ten, fifteen, or twenty of their graduates have entered a college.

I maintain that in the free, public high schools of New York City, this procedure is all wrong. These schools should be envisaged as an end in themselves. Instead of this and because the high school work has never been envisaged as an end itself, at least fifty per cent of the pupils who enter high school, are exposed to parts of the curriculum, not devised to help them in any practical way, and, quite often, beyond their mental capacities. After a half year or a year, or two years, they leave school, go out into the world for a job, with nothing under their belts, but some wasted months and, too often alas, a distinct feeling of futility, of mental inferiority, that in many, many cases leads to social antipathy, the first step to anti-social practices and crime. The absolute folly of this program educationally, economically and socially is naturally truer in some schools than in others, due to their location and to the financial and social position of the families from which they draw.

There is one fact that we must face, now more than ever before, a greater and greater number of our New York children are forced to attend the high school nearest to their homes, due to their inability to pay the carfare necessary

to reach one further away, although it might be better suited to their needs and abilities. Even among those who can afford to pay carfare, more and more are refused admission to technical, industrial, and manual training schools, due to lack of room.

I have in mind a large high school, academic and commercial (and you may be sure it is not an exception) that draws in great part from a population of very poor, small shop-keepers, piece workers in garment factories, day laborers, or that which is yet more pitiful, people entirely out of work. Their boys and girls go to this school with no intention to conclude the full course; they attend just as long as they have to and no longer. Seldom do they finish even two full years of work, though they may spend three or more years in this school, unless they fall a victim to the "superannuation" regulation and are dropped from school. (By the way—what food for thought the number of these superannuated cases!) Out in the world they will try to become engaged in the same general run of activities from which their parents are so earnestly endeavoring to derive a living.

Well, what do we offer these pupils? What do we do for them? In the academic course they may start out with English, community civics, biology, and foreign language; in the commercial group—English, community civics, general

science, business practice and typewriting. Most of the girls pick the latter course; most of the boys the former. Why? Because (this is a result of investigation) a commercial course with typewriting, to this type of boy, is "sissie" work, quite proper for girls but not for boys. So then we have Tony, and Louis and Irving, with I.Q.'s ranging from 65 to 90, taking biology, French or Latin or German, reading the Ancient Mariner, Classified Myths, Narrative Poems, and what not. Could anything be more absurd, more educationally unsound?

The miracle to me is that so many of these youngsters can be kept at this work at all, that they can be induced to toil in these, to them, sterile fields. Our saving grace has been the ingenuity displayed by some teachers which is nothing short of marvelous, the patience exercised by them, more Jobian, and the fact that we have in our city, skilled teachers who have kept in their hearts the spirit of youth and the ability to deal sympathetically with the hopes, ambitions, ideals, and bitter disappointments of these poorly endowed children.

But in spite of all this, we have rebels, discipline cases that remain incurable despite all efforts. The sense of inferiority that bedevils most adolescents (and especially, male adolescents) in these subnormal cases, becomes more and more

acute, leads either to absolute discouragement, the breaking down of moral fibre, or to rebellion. This rebellion, must perforce, express itself by something that gives back to these individuals some of their lost self respect, and that nearly always leads to bullying weaker classmates, to the development of dishonest shrewdness, to deception, to pilfering, to stealing. It is the individual's retort to this feeling of inferiority that has been inflicted upon him, during hours of school when inability to grasp the work presented, to understand it, to do, branded him a failure.

A perusal of studies by criminologists will bear out my contentions and the ever-increasing amount of juvenile delinquency and criminality in and around New York is further proof that there is something amiss in our educational processes. In the last analysis we, the teachers of our youths, must answer for the actions of our youths.

It seems to me that our past practices should be almost reversed. Instead of having two or three industrial schools in central locations and numerous academic schools all over town, we should have in New York, five or six schools specifically preparing children for college. There is no doubt whatsoever that the great majority of these come from families who are in a better economic position than the others and they

could afford to send their children to these centrally located schools. Moreover, to qualify for these schools certain entrance requirements would of necessity have to be met. It is not enough that a child or a parent desires to send a youth to college. It is also quite necessary that the mental equipment be adequate. In these schools the curriculum would be enriched, increased in scope so that a New York child receiving a certificate of accomplishment testifying to his eligibility to pursue a collegiate course would be a welcomed student in any college.

For the other seventy or seventy-five per cent of our children we need community high schools that give useful, assimilable knowledge to children: schools with general courses, industrial courses, art training courses, schools that are an end in themselves and not just a rung in a ladder leading to possible higher educational development.

To those pupils who completed the regular course, we would issue a High School diploma. This disposition of our belief that the holder thereof had mastered intermediate algebra or one year of physics, or three years of French or even become an adequate and appreciative judge of classical English literature. It would, however, be a warrant that, in our judgment, the holder thereof had, for four years, done certain work well

and conscientiously, that he had developed a sound sense of responsibility as expressed by his attitude towards and accomplishment of the work assigned; that he had brought into being an adequate civic consciousness, a personal worth of character predicated on the possession of courage, initiative, honesty of thought and purpose, a willingness to coöperate and an appreciation of the value of service rendered without complete selfish motives. This type of High School graduate would be infinitely better fitted for life than most are today. Because he knew naught of algebraic formulas, chemical equations or irregular German verbs, would not in any way militate against his future usefulness to society, to the State, to his prospective employer, nor to his own achievement of a happy life. This individual, as I visualize him would be an efficient worker within his scope of ability: he would be a straight thinking, straight shooting citizen, a potentially fine parent. Moreover, his emotional and mental outlook would have been enriched, elevated to a degree commensurate with his potentialities and in a manner to produce results conducive to contentment with his lot. This product of our High Schools upon opening his morning paper (a real paper) and reading dispatches from Shanghai or Buenos Aires or Sidney would have a very definite knowledge of the whereabouts

of these cities and of the people who inhabited them. Turning to an article bearing upon the death of Warren Whitney he would feel a profound respect and admiration for a man who, in time of peace, had found in himself courage to do and die in the performance of an unselfish task destined to relieve the misery of less fortunate humans. Or again seeing a presentation of the New York City budget he would have the knowledge to judge its weakness or strength. In his own affairs, my High School product would have the ability to budget his own finances, to resist beguiling salesmen and their nefarious installment offers; he would have the ability to check up his grocery bill; to properly deduct an allowed percentage for cash payment; to test the accuracy of his gas or electric charges. He would also be able to differentiate between the blatant and the reasonable, the demagogic and the statesmanlike, the true and the untrue. My High School graduate would be a youngster of character with a flair for the cultural, the ethical, the sound things of life.

This can be done! But not the way we are going at it now; not by foisting uninteresting useless work on immature minds; not by developing in them a sense of futility, of inferiority; not by creating social antipathy, hopelessness. The theory of the survival of the fittest is a fine one! We know

that the fittest will survive, but I should like to see all the others survive, not as discouraged, hopeless discontents but with a justified feeling of self respect based on the conviction that they are of value to the world.

The way is open to us but we must courageously cast aside the old requirements, the old fetishes. Of course English must be taught but with a different approach. It is our job to convince all youngsters that correct English well spoken is a worth while asset. We must give them much more oral training so that they may be able to develop a thought and express it simply but efficiently. A close correlation must be established between the English classes and the civics classes and the current events classes, for these offer the most fertile field for discussion. Instruction in civics should prove itself by a practical demonstration of good citizenship just as instruction in history should prove itself by a sound judgment in today's governmental problems. Applied work in general science is needed, and more and more, as our facilities grow to allow it, we must give our youngsters opportunities to do something with their hands—to increase their manual dexterity, to build, to create. Let us not hesitate to give a very large place to personal hygiene, to sound knowledge in diets, in prevention of disease; let us develop a strong desire for and a great pride in a

sound, healthy body—and let us not forget music and art.

It is not my purpose to present here the whole list of studies to be undertaken but we should be particularly careful to plan intelligently the first and second year's work so that a pupil forced to quit after either one or the other, could carry away not merely a feeling, but a fact of accomplishment; he would have not only added to his skills but also received some permanent development of his mental, emotional and moral personality. And in such work, allowance should be made for divergent mentalities. The measurement of entering pupils should be done and the work for them planned according to its indications.

Now, none of this recasting of the work in our high schools is either impossible nor even difficult; it does not involve any great financial outlay. The question then

remains: "Why is it not being done?" Why should it not be done at once, so that our great modern school buildings might become sources of real mental, moral and social advancement, so that the work of our large corps of high school teachers, the majority of whom are able, sympathetic, capable of guiding, stimulating, and disciplining their charges, might blossom into a real accomplishment of adjustment, of efficient training of mind, body, and soul?

We would certainly produce fewer misfits, more happy boys and girls ready to take their proper place in the world, adequately prepared to do their work in a thorough, efficient manner that would bring satisfaction and peace of mind to them and progress in the field of human endeavor.

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SOME EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF STUDIES IN FATIGUE

The study of fatigue and of practice affects vital problems in contemporary technological society. It involves not only a question of waste but of human happiness and well-being. Since the turn of the century the literature in this field has increased tremendously and names such as Marey, Amar, Imbert, Offner, Thorndike, Goldmark,

Jennings, Sherrington, Bayliss and Beritoff are prominent. But it is of comparative recency, unfortunately, that the theoretical work of these physiologists and psychologists has been used in the practical experimental investigation of some of the real problems of modern man. Thus, Gilbreth, Kent, Spooner, Lee and Florence have

attempted to resolve the question of the relation of fatigue to industrial efficiency. And the problem is no less acute in education and educational practice. Here, too, most studies have been of a psychological nature rather than one of experimental education. In Germany, more than elsewhere, however, investigations have been carried on in separate quarters by Meumann, Lay, Radosavljevich, Stern, Spillman, Kraepelin, Mosso, Lorentz, Lobsien, A. Key, Wieschardt, Griesbach, Blazek, Bettman, and, most significantly, Keller and Kemsies, the results of which may be of great moment to education.

The state of fatigue has been studied systematically for more than three decades and yet there still exists a confusion of concepts concerning it. Popularly, it is known that fatigue is marked by a decrease in the power to work, or to learn, and in general efficiency; a decrease in the accompanying pleasure; and a decrease in enjoyment during extra-working, or extra-learning, hours. It is due to the fact that effort and exertion consume psycho-physical energies during which a kind of 'poison,' fatigue substance, is generated which slows one down.¹ The physiological concomitants also are known. Recuperation and restoration become more difficult as fatigue becomes greater.

More scientifically, fatigue is due to the consumption of the materials of the body and the produc-

tion of kenotoxines which have a harmful effect upon the nerve cell. This functional incapacity results whether the work is mental or physical and fatigue may be designated as a "psycho-physical neutral disposition." Wieschardt's experiments tend to prove that the body produces an antitoxin, i.e., anti-kenotoxin. He claims to have isolated both the toxin and the antitoxin and experiments have been performed with them.¹ The process through which the condition of fatigue is relieved is known as recuperation in which process sleep, nutrition, increased breathing and circulation due to body movement as in play, for example, and medication are important factors.

Experimentally, fatigue has been measured by means of various techniques involving, among others, the fatigue study or survey, reaction time, attention span, the Kraepelin adding method, the aethesiometer, the dynamometer, and, most important, the ergograph. A discussion of these techniques cannot be within the scope of this paper. Such information is to be found in any standard text on experimental education. The remainder will be devoted, then, to the results of experimental educational research, to that of Keller and Kemsies, more especially, and to the implication and inference inherent therein.

¹ Cf. Meumann's *Vorlesungen*.

Experimental educational investigations bear out what every experienced teacher has learned through pedagogical tact and observation, that by the middle of the school day and, too, by the middle of the school week pupils become restive, easily distracted and wasteful of time. Also the teacher has become tired and less effective. To be sure, there are a great many factors within the whole set-up such as eye-strain, muscular strain, incorrect posture, lighting, ventilation, heating and noise that contribute to fatigue. In addition, antiquated curricula and outmoded methods of instruction, boredom, emotional strain, teacher and pupil personality play no insignificant role in this matter. Schulze, Wulfen, Gates, Teljatnik, Stern and Lay have investigated the natural variations in ability during the day, week, month and year, and the results, though not determined absolutely, require that these aspects be considered. According to Gilbert, age, growth and puberty are doubtless important in achievement and efficiency; Allers believes weather and mental-nervous and physical character to be of greatest consequence. And the fatigue type, the tempo and course of fatigue as indicated by the fatigue curve, as well, cannot be disregarded. But at all times the total conditions of the organism as a whole must be kept in view.

On the other hand, even under the most favorable circumstances

and with most complete cognizance of all the factors, fatigue must result naturally from the work and exertion and effort expended in the normal course of learning as well as in the normal course of time.²

This has a direct bearing upon the efficiency and success of the learning process and must be recognized and dealt with in accordance with the law of economy and hygiene of learning and teaching.³

It is true that pupils and teachers may combine their efforts to determine the most satisfactory conditions for learning for each individual and that this coöperative attitude is inexorably necessary. But the investigations of experimental educators indicate that there must be a wider and more practical approach to the problems of fatigue in the school as a whole, and they point out the direction of this re-adjustment.

Keller's experiments in Winterthur showed conclusively:

1. Short recess periods are not sufficient to ensure recuperation.
2. Fatigue due to mental work continues for hours during and

² Bayliss and Humphrey both stress the fact that fatigue is a protective agency.

³ Kantor insists that the kind of activity under the conditions of fatigue "simulates somewhat the reaction of the individual during sleep." And it would repay every effort along these lines to review the latest electroencephalographic experiments at Harvard and at the Loomis Laboratory.

after rest periods.

3. Continuous mental work (common in the secondary school system at large) leads more quickly to fatigue than an equally long task broken by short pauses.

4. Singing and gymnastics are not recuperative courses but tend rather to increase fatigue significantly.

5. The condition of fatigue can persist throughout an entire semester and only after a vacation period may the original efficiency be re-established.

Kemsies continued these investigations in Berlin with the specific purpose of determining the fatigue effect of various subjects of instruction within the curriculum. He found:

1. Increased determination and will do not relieve the loss in efficiency caused by the condition of fatigue due to mental work. The pupil's mood, attitude and interest in the subject matter are not sufficient to check fatigue.

2. Lasting decrease in efficiency is a sure sign of overburdening.

3. Every subject within the curriculum causes fatigue.

4. The best days of the week for work are Monday and Tuesday, and the first and second days after a holiday.

5. The best working time during a school day is the first two hours of instruction, and only on Monday will the third and fourth hours afford better results. Afternoon instruction was extraordinary

ily demanding and, in order to gain the desired results, had to be put over until the following forenoon.

6. Longer pauses ought to be inserted after the first two hours and after each succeeding hour.

7. A vacation has beneficial effect, the results of which are lost, however, in four weeks.

8. The program schedule should be so arranged that an equitable distribution of fatiguing subjects be effected.

Kemsies believes to be able to scale the subjects within the curriculum according to their ergographic fatigue index as follows:⁴

(1) gymnastics (cause greatest fatigue) (2) mathematics (3) foreign languages (4) religion (5) native language (6) natural sciences and geography (7) history (8) singing and drawing.⁵

Some subjects like mathematics and foreign languages necessitate an intensive concentration of attention due to the abstract nature of the predominating processes which are strictly intellectual (under prevalent conditions); natural sciences call for a more extensive distribution of attention because they are concrete and allow for greater and more varied activity; industrial and shop courses require a shorter attention span because they involve simple mental processes.

⁴ After Doering.
⁵ Other investigators place singing on the scale directly after gymnastics.

Further, an infraction of regulation or break in discipline is a manifestation of an inner state. The investigations of discipline and punishment resulted in curves of variation concomitant with those for efficiency and learning as described above. Statistically it was shown that the greatest cause of punishment is inattention and this is especially true of secondary schools. Of all discipline marks 43.9% were due to inattention, 26.3% to laziness, 11% to disobedience and insubordination and the remaining 18.8% were distributed widely.

The discipline and punishment curve shows that the third hour of the morning is worse by far than either of the two first hours and about equal to both the first and the second hours together.

Hour

8-9 9-10 10-11 11-12 12-1

Punishments

14.8% 21.1% 35.5% 21.0% 7.6%

The falling off at noon is explained by the fact that the active opposition of the pupil becomes passive by that time.

Gates claimed to have proved conclusively variations during the day, and he sums up: "The drop in efficiency following the midday meal has been the most consistent aspect of the curve that has been found. No exception to the rule occurs in the case of any function, and the average results show

that the minimum efficiency of the day occurs at this hour."

It would follow, then, that the home room period, the rest period, the study period, the library period, and assemblies might be best put over to the afternoon which is less suitable for learning and when fatigue in both pupil and teacher is greatest.

Yet this is but a minor and ancillary amelioration. For it appears contrary to every sound pedagogical principle to have any subject, no less one high on the scale developed above, during the unfavorable period in the afternoon each and every day. From this point of view it becomes the direct and immediate concern of every teacher and pupil.

It is the logic of the facts that the most efficacious and most easily and successfully attainable adjustment within the present secondary school system is a re-arrangement of the pupil's program. (Vide supra!) However, it is impossible with four or five major subjects, which most high school students carry, so to arrange for this equitable distribution from the standpoint of fatigue as well as efficiency within the indicated two hour period in the forenoon, as Kemsies suggests. One solution to the problem is the rotary system of program making which is used even now in some of the junior high schools of New York City and which, at one time, was to be found in some of the senior

high schools, though abandoned for administrative reasons.⁶

The *raison d'être* of the school is the pupil. He must be given every opportunity to acquire a maximum efficiency in each school subject and in each learning process. The administrative objections must be denied in light of the facts and in view of the aims and objectives of education in general and of secondary education in particular. The rotary system, for example, the Penhollow system,⁷ as over against the flat or straight across system of program making is the nearest, most achievable educational device on hand to ensure the greatest success with the least expenditure of psycho-physical energy on the part of both teacher and pupil.

Before closing, the questions must be raised which already exist in the minds of those versed in this type of experimental educational research; namely, What of the effect of practice and habit formation? What of the validity of these results?

It was definitely a part of the research technique to remove and

⁶For details concerning the actual formulation of the rotary system of program making, see "Preparing a School Program of Studies" by Abraham Kroll in *Principles and Practices of Junior High School Education in the City of New York*, 1932, published by the Board of Education.

⁷*Penhollow Rotary System*, copyrighted 1912 by the late Harry B. Penhollow, formerly Director of High School Organization, Board of Education, New York City.

to exclude the factors of practice and habit formation. This was accomplished, as is known, by testing for the effects of fatigue only at the time of maximum efficiency,

As to the absolute certainty of the results, Meumann says: "We must recognize the practical significance of these measurements (of fatigue and work) in spite of any uncertainty because of the fact that many of the previously described experiments were performed with a *large number* of children and adults and that in spite of any deviations in detail they show a good agreement, correlation, in the *main results*."⁸

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THE TREATMENT OF RADICALS IN OUR SCHOOLS

The confirmed radical in our schools demands special treatment. The problem has negative and positive aspects. The "Dont's" of expediency and common sense enjoined upon teachers should receive most emphasis for the reason that too many teachers are inclined to regard radicalism as a form of indiscipline and a manifestation of un-Americanism and therefore amenable to disciplinary measures. Too few possess sufficient training in history and economics to meet the radical on his own ground. Not that such encounters always end in victory, for it is a psychologic truism that you cannot convince a person against his will. But such attacks, if delivered with determination, may reveal weaknesses in the radi-

cal's defences which, if demolished, may sow doubt in his mind as to the infallibility of his cherished dogmas. Such setbacks may not enforce a retreat, but they may conduce to an abatement of the juvenilities and excesses which perturb teacher-pupil relationships.

Now, among the prohibitions urged upon teachers none are more productive of wide cleavages than the dubious tactics designed to undermine a student's self-respect and self-esteem. Sarcasm is a weapon of doubtful efficacy. Wit that is not edged with kindness, witticisms that descend to the crudities of "wise cracks," merely serve to fortify beliefs at which they are aimed. Equally objectionable are attitudes of condescension and superiority. Facts

wear their own aura of authoritativeness and need no personal prestige to render them impressive. Besides, the radical has his own glamorous prophets whose huge stature dwarfs all non-believers. No less exceptionable is the reproach of un-Americanism heaped upon the heads of radicals. It is one of those omnibus epithets that has been worn thin by indiscriminate usage; whose meaning has been obscured by loose thinking, and whose connotation has been widened to include innocuous habits and attitudes as well as significant moral and political concepts. It is of a piece with the opprobrious term "Red." They are both marked by indefiniteness and reprobation. The former tends to provoke pity for the plight of an opponent who, by its frequent use, advertises an incapacity for concise characterization; the latter arouses contempt for the obtuseness of a disputant who cannot distinguish reformism from communism. Recrimination has never settled an argument. No fight can make progress if the opponents are forever falling into clinches.

Finally it is advisable to avoid invoking the "Great Hush." True, youth in its exuberance, is given to the use of intemperate language. It is not easy to contemplate with equanimity savage assaults upon one's cherished ideals, institutions and symbols. The impulse to come to their defence is well-nigh

irresistible. Yet deeply-rooted faiths are above vilification; ideals grounded in sentiment can easily withstand destructive criticism. The wisdom of the ages has gone into their fashioning, and mankind, despite lapses from truth and rationality, has returned to the allegiance of the eternal verities. If the philosophic foundation of democracy is one of these verities, if our democratic institutions are the embodiment of the vital ideals, if our flag is the accepted symbol of democratic government, then democracy, parliamentary rule and patriotism, the targets of radical minorities, are invulnerable to attacks. The defenders of an impregnable fortress need not rush into action against every sniper who chooses to display his marksmanship. Therefore, the radical in our school should not be estopped from criticizing our institutions by recourse to sarcasm, or by the invocation of moral indignation. Even flagrantly destructive criticism that does not translate itself into acts of overt disloyalty may be overlooked, for, often as not, they spring from either a state of emotional effervescence or from a deep restlessness that has its roots in unfavorable economic conditions. Both are transitory and will be succeeded by emotional quiescence conducive to moderation.

These observations do not exhaust the list of "Don't's." Equally ineffectual and provocative are

the inept attempts to eviscerate the radical's criticism by accentuating the frailties that human nature is heir to and by minimizing the progress made by nations and communities that have embraced wholeheartedly the Marxian philosophy. Psychologists have not as yet succeeded in constructing a camera for photographing the inner man comparable in definiteness and sharpness to that used in picturing the outer man. There is much about human nature that is unexplored terrain. There are still the unresolved contradictions explained variously by exponents of "schools" of psychology. The reciprocal relations between heredity and environment are still shrouded in the deepest obscurity. Is man a mere pawn on the chess-board of fate, or is he the victim of vicious environmental forces? Is selfishness, even in its enlightened forms, the motive force of progress, or is progress possible only when built on unselfishness? What promise of perfectibility inheres in the conditioned reflex and the techniques of conditioning? Today few psychologists take an unrelievedly dismal view of human nature; and the growth of democratic ideals are predicated, in part, on the educability—and improvableity—of the masses. To hint, therefore, that those who entertain high hopes for the establishment of a society motivated by an enlightened altruism are self-deluded Utopians, is to lay

oneself open to the charge of cheap cynicism. Even that hardy breed of invincible realists, the classical economists, base their laws upon the practical benevolence of the intelligently directed self-regarding instincts. It would seem, then, that intelligence can mitigate and neutralize selfishness to the extent of creating patterns of behavior closely resembling those woven out of good will. Why, then, deny the possibility of so permeating selfishness with good sense as gradually to transmute it into a workaday altruism? This is not Utopianism. It is practical idealism and not unorthodox psychology. This much may be conceded to the radical without committing oneself to his dogmas and, least of all, to his tactics.

Having pointed out the wrong approach to radicalism in our schools, it is reasonable to assume that there is a right approach. There is a right approach in the sense of suitability and feasibility. For it should be remembered, first, that the teacher's time is devoted to discharge of prescribed and onerous duties and, therefore, are not free to convert the classroom into a forum for the discussion of topics outside the bounds of the assigned lesson. Secondly, many radical dogmas, which, unfortunately, lend themselves to beguiling formulation, are conglomerations of concepts whose intricacies perplex the students. For example, it is very difficult to dissociate

Marxian economics from Marxian dialectics and even when sundered they are insusceptible of simple elucidation. Thirdly, dogmatism, whatever its essence, tends to inspire complacent self-sufficiency and a bristling self-sophistication; against such armament neither persuasion nor threat avails. These are significant qualifications but they need not deter teachers from attempting to evolve a formula for the facilitating of an effective rapport with the radically-minded students. The following suggestions may prove helpful. The first step towards a rapprochement is to demarcate sharply the theories of social reconstruction that fall within the framework of a liberally interpreted Constitution from social and economic philosophies that are definitely extra-Constitutional. Such delineation allows for full and untrammelled discussion of flagrant abuses that bedevil the country's economy, corruption in high places, denial of primitive rights, insidious activities, of lobbyists, racketeering, both crude and genteel, inhumanly cruel competition and the nefarious activities of war profiteers; all these cancerous growths upon the body politic may be exposed for unequivocal reprobation. Following upon this exposure, students should be invited to canvass ways and means of dealing with such conditions. Here, the radical is offered an opportunity to ventilate his views. The teacher, acting

as a moderator, may then point out the legal exigencies that should qualify all proposals. Such procedure may prove inadequate in dealing with the directactionist if the recounting of economic evils merely ends on a note of tepid protestation. But if definite measures are proposed, such as new laws, amendments to existing laws, or even amendments to the constitution and measures are devised to bring these views to the attention of those charged with governmental functions, even the more uncompromising radical may acquiesce if for no other reason than the hope that such reformation may prove the thin edge of the wedge of revolutionary changes.

Two advantages accrue from a sharply-edged delineation of the widely divergent philosophies of social and economic amelioration. For one thing, it reveals the unlimited capacity for adjustability inhering in the Constitution. Stressing its potentialities for insuring social and economic security, and pointing out the ease with which pressure may be effectively applied to governmental agencies by an aroused citizenry acutely aware of its constitutional rights, should serve to attenuate the advocacy of force to a dubious alternative. For another it fixes the boundaries to controversial subjects, acting as a deterrent to trespassing. It tends to confine discussion to special phases, in this instance, democratically oriented

proposals. The radical who is no respecter of trespass signs may be firmly invited to retrace his steps.

A supplemental step is indicated in schools in which the radical elements have become consolidated into a militant minority. Here teachers and supervisors face a serious dilemma. For many such groups arrogate to themselves coordinate authority to pass upon purely administrative and pedagogic matters. Others broadly construe the process of education to include active participation in current social problems whose many ramifications reach into controverted areas of thought and whose solution cannot be undertaken haphazardly. True, many educators urge the widening of school horizons to include the essential activities of the community and the training of students in the technique of self-government. The curricula of progressive schools have already been geared to practical human affairs and routine matters of school administration are being increasingly delegated to accredited student councils. But it is a far cry from education for social efficiency to education for political action; from administrative collaboration to administrative independence. Therefore, teachers will be well advised to define clearly the field of activity of students; to apprise them of the exigencies and limitations that counsel moderation; to point out the many advisabilities that impose the

attitude of neutrality upon teachers even at the risk of drawing down the reproach of faint-heartedness.

Finally, a set of "ground rules" should be drawn up, at the beginning of the term, prescribing the manner in which controversial matter should be presented. It might well include such provisions as orderly procedure during debates; penalizing unwarranted interruptions; discouraging diffuseness in a speaker; addressing the class only when adequately prepared; documenting one's statements; and obligating oneself to accept criticism when offered. Finally, and most importantly, teachers must impress upon students the psychologic havoc wrought upon the minds of disputants and the equally serious damage inflicted upon contestants' arguments by the propensity to indulge in personalities. It may help to drive the lesson home by explaining that an argument that cannot stand on its own evidential feet is usually a sorry argument and better abandoned; that never do good manners stand one in better stead than when one is striving to win over an embattled opponent; that amiability often melts mental resistance much more quickly than logic; that ingratiation is the key that unlocks many a closed mind. Conversely, a hortative or didactic manner, a contemptuous tone, and ironic twist and a belligerent pose may goad an opponent into a state of antagonism and cause him to cling

to opinions which have already been severely shaken.

The scrupulous observance of the amenities and the adoption of a glossary of amiable dispute creates an atmosphere favorable to calm deliberation. But decorous behavior is an empty gesture if it is not nourished by an attitude of scientific objectivity. Its outstanding quality is a settled disposition to dissociate opinions and beliefs from the person who entertains them; to regard an adversary's utterances with the impersonality one accords an anonymous article. "The idea is the thing." Once its foundations are undermined with the tools of fact and reason, the structure is bound to topple, though one may be denied the pleasure of witnessing its destruction. Pride, stubbornness, willfulness will operate to bolster it up. But not for long. For even these powerful emotions lose their potency for lack of stimulation. They cannot withstand indefinitely the impact of surpassingly stubborn facts. One teacher, perturbed by a flagrant display of "tu quoque" heckling, was moved to admonish the offender to refrain from degrading the discussion into a "personal feud." "Disregard me as an individual," he pleaded. "I bear no animus towards you for entertaining opinions diametrically opposed to mine. This discussion is for the purpose of effecting a free exchange of views. Regard the latter specimens in the scien-

tist's laboratory. Then proceed to dissect them. Leave my personality out of this." He then indicated how this tendency might be curbed. "Shun such expressions as 'you said,' 'I disagree with you,' 'you are wrong.' Make the statement the point of reference. Better say 'the statement you made,' 'I do not agree with the statement,' 'the statement may be questioned.' Avoid, also, the use of the personal pronoun in stating your own position. Don't say 'I feel . . .' Any remark prefaced by 'I' has the effect of a challenge and arouses a belligerent mood. It is a verbal chip on the shoulder and invites aggression."

All these measures may be multiplied indefinitely. They apply to the liberal who occasionally trenches on radicalism and to the radical who is largely motivated by wishful thinking. They are not altogether without effect upon the militant radical. At the very least, they narrow the field of controversy and reduce the problem of radical activity to manageable proportions. Any infraction of the rules of procedure governing the consideration of mooted questions, any attempt to transcend the bounds set for propagandist activities, may then be dealt with as manifestations of indiscipline. These rules and regulations apply with equal force to teachers. Rules are made for the entire membership of a group. There is only one sovereign way of earning

the respect of students, and that is by respecting unreservedly their individualities. Courtesy begets courtesy and good sportsmanship invites fair play. Dignity is not a matter of position and teachers who are continually resenting indignities frequently have either very little genuine dignity to defend or have forfeited that little through a misguided use of authority. Not a few employ dignity as a cudgel with which to belabor radicals, in the manner of the teacher who enlightened ignorance with, "How dare you not know the lesson!"

However, not all the tact, forbearance, perserverance and adroitness, can reduce the recalcitrance of the residue of intransigent radicals natured in the school of Marx. They are a hardy breed buoyed up by grandiose visions, heartened by a sort of desperate courage and inspirited by a sublime faith in the justness of their cause. They exemplify adolescence in its most flaming and ebullient state. It is an easy matter to liquidate them summarily. It is undoubtedly the easiest way. But like all "easy" ways of resolving a difficulty they are more likely to be dictated by considerations of convenience rather than by the promptings of conscience. Before recommending serious punishment such as suspension or expulsion teachers may well pause and examine the situation with as much dispassionateness as justifiably ex-

asperated individuals are capable of mustering to assess fairly the various influences reflected in the decision. To what extent has indignation been whipped up by the failure to oppose the radical's contentions with effective refutation? Is it the manifestations of a spirit of lese majesté or the advocacy of subversive doctrines that is deemed exceptionable? How much resentment derives from a distressing awareness of personal inadequacy in dealing with independent minds? Introspection might go deeper to discover an undercurrent of annoyance at the interruption of school routines. Finally it might be well to re-examine the full significance of the offense. How active a ferment can a small radical group become in a large body of conservatively minded or complacently quiescent students? To what extent is the Marxian dogma merely a spear head for a less revolutionary philosophy of melioration? Not all professed communists are slavish followers of Stalin; they wear the Russian label because the antipathies it excites serves to keep alive the crusading ardor. It is a sort of irretrievable gesture like crossing the Rubicon. Suspension and expulsion aids in supplying a factual basis for the fragile heretical texture of much of their ideology.

There is yet another consideration that counsels delay and patience. These chronic protestants

who are "agin" everything serve as whetstones for sharpening antagonists' wits. One hard-hitting radical in a class can stir up more interest in the social sciences than a dozen formal lectures. The inflexibility of their determination first wearies, but it often compels a furtive examination of one's views and beliefs. Many a teacher has been hard put to it to strengthen his intellectual fences against the depredations of radical invaders. Society, too, cannot afford to regard all radical activities as an unmitigated evil. Our institutions are effectively bulwarked

against radical attacks. However, it is the part of wisdom to examine every pebble that these ambitious Davids are collecting in order to forewarn and forearm the Goliath of democracy. They are unbearably obstreperous Davids. But their criticism should serve to induce self-criticism. History teaches us that complacency flourishes best in an atmosphere of arrogance and smugness and that this attitude has proved fatal to many a self-satisfied Goliath.

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THE I. Q. IN RELATION TO THE ABILITY TO TYPEWRITE

Do bright pupils become better typists than slow ones? Can pupils of low intelligence become efficient typists? Is there any determinable connection between intelligence and the ability to type-write? These were the thoughts that actuated me in my desire to ascertain scientifically the answers to these and other questions.

When I began to teach the four Typewriting I classes a year ago, I knew no more about them than teachers usually know about incoming groups. By the time I received word that two of my classes were made of better stuff than the other two, that at least one consisted of definitely low I. Q.'s, it had become quite apparent that there

were differences between them. Those labeled as High I. Q. classes entered the classroom with a vim, snap, and vigor, seemingly ready for anything. The other two groups straggled in lackadaisically and unhurriedly. There was nothing brisk or business-like about them. Such were my observations before receiving word of the classification of my classes.

None of them were of such low grade mentality that they could not follow instructions. I knew that there were certain standards that I would have to maintain in order to make touch typists out of them. They would have to keep their eyes on their copy. They would have to learn to use

the correct fingers on the keys. I felt that in these respects the work was the same for all beginning groups, regardless of their I. Q. On the whole, the different groups received the same instruction, excepting that with slower ones the task was more arduous; it required greater alertness on the teacher's part to detect infractions of the instruction "Keep your eyes on the copy." Indeed, I had to repeat that admonition so many times that in the school paper, *The Annex Reflector*, it was set down as my favorite utterance.

It was in the drill work and in the practice work that I modified the procedure. Whereas, in the third week, the bright groups would write one word on a line four times, then change to another,

as,
ape ape ape ape lid lid lid lid
ale ale ale ale did did did did,
the slow group would write one line of each word.

When in the third week, the work called for drills like *awerqa*, I waited until the end of the week when the keys were really familiar to the slow pupils before I gave them that particular drill, and then I had them write six lines of it in unison. The other groups were able to write this drill on the second and third days with no difficulty.

During the fourth week, words like *Where, There, Their*, capitalized, were written in unison, one

line of each, while the better classes wrote the words in succession.

The following week, with words like *Wednesday* and *Saturday*, the slow groups found it necessary to write even three lines of each word, whereas the others were able to alternate the two on the same line.

During the fifth week I gave margins for sentences of various lengths which I had put on the board, while the brighter classes were able to find the margins for the different sentences independently.

During the sixth week I omitted the drills *qza*, *zqa*, *xws* and assigned to the slow group *aqasws*, et cetera, for practice. All these drills were performed in unison, while I tapped at the blackboard as I pointed to the exercise which was written there.

It was in such simpler fashion that I proceeded with the work of the slow group. They needed work in unison, and with my direct guidance for a longer time during the period than the superior pupils did.

Although I had to be most observant, devoting every minute of my time to helping the needy, and they were many, the results, so far as the two major objectives—the eyes and the fingers—were concerned, justified my expenditure of energy. Nor was the work entirely without some relief from the monotony of drill, drill, drill

and constant watchfulness. There was the case of R., aged 17, with an I. Q. of 85, with face and body in contortions while he attempted to follow instructions to draw the hyphenated line for the drill sheet heading. He was trying to accomplish this feat by using his right thumb on the hyphen key and the small finger of the right hand on the space bar!

The low I. Q. groups needed more aid with the original setup of letters. They also needed more guidance with tabulations.

Where there was a tendency to disregard technique, I made a direct, personal appeal to the pupil. I aroused in him the desire to become a touch typist like the rest. In the end I evoked the promise that he would follow instructions most meticulously—in regard to his eyes, for example.

So much for my personal observations and procedures.

When the groups were advanced to Typewriting II they were so scattered that they could not be identified according to their former classification. Throughout the first term the results of their work were characteristic. In speed tests, for instance, the medians were invariably higher for the higher I. Q. classes. However, these tests were indicative only to a limited extent, since there were I. Q. marks for approximately one-half of the class.

Such being the case, it became

necessary for me to compare individuals rather than classes: to consider the individual I. Q. At this point, and at the suggestion of my head of department, Miss Keenan, I proceeded more scientifically. I tried to correlate the I. Q. with speed and the I. Q. with the ratio in various tests given during the term.

Originally, I had the I. Q.'s for about 107 pupils. After eliminating those who were discharged during the term and those for whom I had insufficient data, the number for whom I had sufficient data was, fortunately, reduced to an even one hundred. As the attached sheets show, I used four speed tests given at varying intervals during this term. After averaging the results in speed for all tests for each case, and the results in accuracy for all tests for each case, I applied the formula for obtaining the coefficient of correlation. I found that the coefficient of correlation between the I. Q. and speed was .375 and that between the I. Q. and accuracy was .251.

Being by now imbued with truly scientific zeal I had to test my results further. I repeated the entire procedure in a test given in January and found a coefficient of correlation of .163 for speed and .156 for accuracy. These findings proved that my first results were not amiss.

Although these results are mathematically correct, some al-

lowance must be made for the many varying factors which influence the results. The situation is removed from an ideal one for scientific experiment because of factors such as a varying individual attitude toward typewriting on the part of the pupil. A pupil's physical condition at the time of a test may alter the net result. Some pupils have typewriters at home. They get more practice on the typewriter and so, even though their I. Q. is low, their chances of becoming better typists in a shorter time are increased. Two pupils with a high I. Q. taking a test will react differently to it. One will hurry to get a high speed score, the other may typewrite slowly in order to get his high accuracy score.

Still, these varying factors and others would not in themselves produce as great a variation as the correlation quotient indicates. The only conclusion to be drawn, therefore, is that there is, at the beginning, no connection between a student's ability to typewrite and his I. Q.

Typewriting becomes automatic so that eventually it depends upon reflex action. At the beginning, the I. Q. plays a small part in the ability of the student to learn to typewrite. Thereafter, other factors appear to determine relative success.

There is, judging from the results, little correlation between the I. Q. and accuracy and the I. Q.

and speed! There is, however, a greater correlation between the I. Q. and speed than there is between the I. Q. and accuracy. It is evidently necessary to have greater intelligence after a certain amount of speed has been acquired. The pupil with the low I. Q. cannot reach the same degree of speed as the one with the high I. Q. Where intelligence is low, speed is low. Where speed must be higher, higher intelligence is needed.

The variation in intelligence to begin with was not great. The I. Q.'s varied from 79 to 125, with a distribution of forty cases with an I. Q. below 100, and with sixty cases above 100. Thus, there was a preponderance of cases hovering around the 100 mark, with the majority of cases in the lower half falling between I. Q.'s of 84 and 100, and in the upper half, falling between 100 and 115. The range for most of those examined is from 84 to 114—not a wide span at all.

In individual cases, where a student with an I. Q. of 125 is compared with one who has 79, there is an obvious correlation. For example, Miss E., who ranked second in the I. Q. classification, had an average rank in speed of 7.5 and an average rank in ratio of 2.5, while Miss P., who ranked one-hundredth in the I. Q. list had an average rank in speed of 95.5 and an average rank in accuracy of 74.5.

In making a comparison between the I. Q. and speed and the I. Q. and accuracy among the first 20% of the cases ranked according to the highest I. Q. (ranging from 111 to 125), I find that 5, or 25%, of the cases ranked among the best first twenty in average speed and 7 cases, or 35%, were among the best first twenty in ratio.*

In making a comparison between the I. Q. and speed and the I. Q. and accuracy among the *last* twenty cases, ranging in rank for I. Q.'s from 81 to 100 with an I. Q. range of 79 to 91 in I. Q. there are 13 cases, more than 65% whose rank is between 85 and 100 in speed, and 8 cases, or 40% of the number compared, ranked

* It is interesting to note that 3 out of the 5 were among the first twenty in both speed and ratio.

ing between 85th and 100th in accuracy. At that, six additional cases, making a total of 15, range from 63rd to 76th in rank, unequivocally proving that the low I. Q.'s do not make good typists.

In conclusion, we may say that the high I. Q.'s make excellent or good typists. No poor I. Q.'s make good typists. No high I. Q.'s make poor typists. The average pupil may be a good or a poor typist. Perhaps the success of the latter, and they are in the majority, is influenced by their aptitudes, ambitions, diligence, temperament, or home environment, by whether they practice at home or not, to a greater extent than that of either of the other two groups who, after all, approach the extremes.

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A MAN THINKS ALOUD

"How do teachers participate in the administration of your school?"

This question was addressed to a local secondary school principal of more years of teaching and administration experience than the writer is old. This was the second time your correspondent had met the man. On both occasions he merely walked into the principal's office and he was welcomed. There was no pretense at formalities, no effort to create confusion, no tense atmosphere.

On the first visit more than a year ago, the school activities and its special program of instruction were paraded before astonished and approving eyes. This cannot be a city school!

Imagine pupils with a comprehension of the formal structure of the operation of the teaching method. Think of it, boys and girls with a sang froid that would rival that of Adolph Menjou! In fact, the pupils were more at ease than the visitor. They actually en-

joyed the opportunity to demonstrate, not for themselves alone, but for their community, some two thousand live individuals. Here was a group spirit manifesting itself in an education emphasizing mutual goodwill and coöperative action rather than destructive, competitive individualism.

The teachers, too, appeared to be a coöperative body of understanding, sympathetic and competent persons. The enthusiasm they possessed matched their pupils'. To the casual observer it might have seemed that these teachers lacked the ability to control their classes. But it was easily apparent that the pupils were progressing under their own momentum and following a planned program of procedure. Within this framework, the democratic methods of living were functioning. There was freedom, self-government, leadership, coöperative group helpfulness, self-checking and active pupil participation.

In his interview with the principal, the writer discovered some very illuminating things. The principal-teacher relationship was democratic. Faculty meetings were periodically held and there were faculty committees functioning. Then, the principal opened up his "big guns." He believed that teacher-to-teacher contact was more important than the principal-to-teacher. Just as the pupils had a mutual bond in their study activities, so did the teachers in

their teaching. Therefore, when a new teacher enters this school, the principal meets him and turns him over to the teaching faculty. The newcomer is supplied with the formal plan of classroom instruction. He observes the teachers and they, in turn, observe him. It is their task to assist him constructively. They are sponsoring him.

What is the net result of this procedure? Each teacher respects his fellows. All work for the school and the students. There is constructive activity; teachers do not compete with each other. Progress is being made in an atmosphere of social coöperativeness with freedom and under competent, effective and understanding leadership.

This school has its own unique plan of teaching procedure originated by the principal more than thirty years ago. It was this plan which originally attracted the writer to this school. Therefore, it followed that one should ask what were the teachers' rights in deviating from the plan. The answer was immediately forthcoming: the plan of teaching was applicable to all kinds of subject matter and the teacher *must* follow it. However, within the formal structure of procedure teacher personalities and attitudes on what is to be done vary, and therefore, some teachers will emphasize the course content while others will stress pupil personality develop-

ment. Each teacher according to his own ingenuity makes contributions to the operation of the plan. The best of these the principal circulates among the other teachers.

The conversation drifted into other school matters: term ratings of teachers; the weight of the curriculum; mental activity as well as physical activity of the pupils; and oral tests of teacher applicants. Upon each the principal commented pointedly, vigorously and constructively.

Here was a "new" education preparing the pupils in a community of their own for a similar but larger community outside, one life sphere being correlated with another greater and enveloping

one. The school, the pupils, the teachers and the principal exemplify these words of Dr. John S. Roberts: "Do you know that a school has a heart? That a school has a soul? That a school has an individuality—an ethical tone? There is different spirit in every high school I have visited . . . an undefinable and intangible something which makes the difference between one school and another. This is largely a reflection of the feeling of the teachers as to the fairness of their supervisors and the success of the school!"

RICHARD VOGEL.

¹ Roberts, John S.: "Supervision," *High Points*, Volume XVIII, January, 1936, p. 11.

MENTAL HYGIENE AND SCHOLARSHIP*

We teachers as a professional group concern ourselves so much with developing intellectual skills that we are sometimes ready to believe the human mind is exclusively intellectual, that it is, in fact, a kind of machine. We feed this machine ideas and information and expect to see it all converted into solid intellectual substance without the slightest resistance or loss. However, our daily experience shows us that this is an occupational bias; we cannot expect 100% efficiency; learning output is not equal to teaching stimulus. Let us rule out at once the

large group of students whose intellectual equipment is inadequate to the demands of an academic high-school, who also, because of strain and failure are confused and indifferent. Suppose we consider only those students who possess adequate intellectual equipment but whose scholastic achievement is far beneath what it should be.

We all know young people of whom we say: "He could do the

* A talk given to the Evander Childs High School faculty on October 18, 1937, as one of several addresses on the general theme: "The Improvement of Scholarship."

work, if he only applied himself. . . . Any number of cases could be cited from our school records which show high I.Q.'s, some of 120, even 130, without a corresponding high standing in school work. A fourth term, 14½ year old boy now in Evander, has an I.Q. of 130, and a reading score also several years ahead of his age; his mother is an author, father an artist. He failed four subjects last term and has never done a lick of work here. During the summers, curiously enough, he is a student at the Lincoln Demonstration School where he gives no trouble, is a star student and is written up in the newspapers.

All of you can furnish duplicate instances of natively bright students who often fail to use their intellectual equipment to its fullest possibility and who sometimes are total scholastic failures, as in the case just cited; or other-times only moderate successes when they should be outstanding ones. We all know of men and women in the outside world who are vocational failures though they possess the intellectual ability required for success in their particular calling.

Our over-sized classes make it difficult for us always to investigate the causes of inattention and unresponsiveness in class, the reason for home preparations that are inadequate or non-existent, or for work that is not what we would expect from a student of a given

intellectual level. But some teachers, moved perhaps by an interest in increasing their own teaching efficiency as much as by the wish to contribute to student happiness, frequently manage to overcome this burden of large classes and go on tours of exploration. And they have found that what, for want of a better term, we may call unresponsiveness, may be due to any number of factors. To begin with, it may arise from sensory handicaps: 10 to 20% of school children have defective hearing, 2 to 5% are seriously below normal in this respect; 10 to 30% have impaired vision. I am reminded here of the boy who was never prepared because he never could read; he needed glasses but refused to get them because he was afraid of what the boys on the block would say. Inattention may really mean the student is ill or sleepy or hungry. One boy worked on a newspaper route from 11 at night to 4 or 5 in the morning and had to get here for an eight o'clock class. Another boy, during the worst of the depression, lived on potato soup for several days at a time. Inattention is frequently due to day-dreaming or reverie; it is often caused by worry, about personal or school problems, about difficulties at home, either economic or those involving family relationships. A student may be brooding over the illness or death of some one dear to him. One

teacher who happened to inquire at the end of class into the reasons for a student's far-off stare all period, discovered that he was planning to run away from home that very day. What we call "lack of concentration" is often quite the opposite; it is concentration of an intense sort, but on matters other than the scheduled classroom activity. Another familiar condition, "laziness," is really not the name of a pedagogical disease entity at all; it may be the symptom of one's inability to emotionally accept a particular task, often due to fear, usually of failure. Laziness should never be the epitaph on a student's educational tombstone; rather it ought to be only the first sentence of a case history.

Psychologists have learned to be wary of considering a low score on an intelligence test as a true index of an individual's abilities until they have ruled out the possibility of sensory defects, fatigue, antagonism, deficiency in a particular skill like reading, and finally, emotional difficulties, sometimes extraneous to the test, sometimes caused by the test situation itself. In fact, in the lower I.Q. ratings, the term pseudo feeble-mindedness is used to characterize the responses of an individual whose test score is totally out of keeping with what we feel are his potential achievements.

To return to the educational scene and to our exploring teach-

ers: unresponsiveness has rarely been found to arise out of wilful disobedience; it is simply that the urgency of extra-classroom problems and interests makes school exercises seem temporarily of secondary importance. A boy of average intelligence, who had repeatedly failed several subjects a term, sat in his classes in a kind of daze so familiar to all of us and rarely brought in any homework because he had told himself that he must find a way of single-handedly supporting his mother and removing her from the scene of family discord. This boy was indifferent to school because he felt it was something entirely apart from the most pressing problem of his life. Another youngster is convinced that only sissies study, or that superior intelligence or other distinctions make study unnecessary. Still another has developed a great fear of a particular subject and is overcome by a kind of mental paralysis and befuddlement at any contact with it. On the other hand, some students feel that failure in a given field: spelling, arithmetic, grammar, or that snobbish attitudes towards particular educational activities are the marks of gifted minds and choice spirits. Finally, we must not forget those students whose work is poor because their homes are so small and crowded that any real study is impossible. It was suggested at a recent meeting of the English Department that we

consider providing opportunities for doing such studying in school.

It should not be thought that the behavior patterns described thus far apply only to rare and pathological youngsters. I have purposely limited myself to relatively common situations. It is difficult for us to realize that many adolescents, even our brightest and most gifted ones, use up so much time and energy in the attempt to make satisfactory adjustments to all the changing circumstances of their own development and of life about them, that, try as they may, they are unable to realize their full potentialities as students until they have achieved some kind of orientation to these larger concerns. Life is a kind of picture puzzle that they are trying to read aright. However, these gifted youngsters, though they could use our guidance, do not require help and understanding as urgently as their less successful fellows.

A sympathetic attempt on the part of the classroom teacher to uncover the causes of inattention and poor work will make for a friendly relationship between teacher and pupil and foster a more coöperative spirit on the part of the latter. Many teachers day after day are able to furnish positive help to their students in altering the factors responsible for poor scholarship, especially those relating to the student's attitude towards school, teachers, study itself. But whenever any of you

find yourselves pressed for time or come upon a case that presents complex technical problems, please feel free to call upon the Bureau of Tests and Measurements. The Bureau stands ready, up to the limits of its case-load, to assist in diagnosis and remedial work and in securing the help of outside agencies and clinics.

The problem of improving scholarship is really our most basic one as educators. But we know too much today any longer to regard it *merely* as a study of techniques for improving intellectual skills, important as this is. We cannot make any complete and lasting change here until we join to it the study of methods facilitating the emotional adjustments of young people and of increasing the relevance of school experiences to their vocational choices and subsequent lives as adult men and women. For man does not live by mind alone. He lives as much by feelings and emotions, beliefs and attitudes, incentives and rewards. Every intellectual activity exists in an emotional matrix: it is either welcomed or feared, comes as a promise of triumph or a threat of defeat, is a part of a life-plan or alien to it. If we follow the later history of some of our students who have received high grades, we find that their anticipated vocational success has failed to materialize, sometimes because of general economic conditions,

but even more often because of their inability to make the necessary emotional and personality adjustments. Biographical sketches of such students to date might well take as a theme: "It is not wisdom to be only wise."

If the school primarily is a place where children are to be studied and understood, it is so, not out of any utopian sentimentality or desire to pamper, and certainly not out of any hope "to convert good teachers into bad psychiatrists." As teachers, we have a perfectly natural desire to see our pedagogical labors achieve their maximum effectiveness, to make the returns of learning approach more closely the investment of teaching. We are com-

pelled, therefore, to seek to educate the total personality, to develop in our students the fullest and most mature expression possible of intellectual capacities and of emotional responses as well, because the two are inseparable. *The success of our educational procedures is to be estimated in the last analysis by the degree to which they have contributed to that fusion and unity which we call the adjusted personality.* This is the essential issue, in my opinion at least, of any campaign for improving scholarship.

GEORGE LAWTON,
Director and Psychologist,

Bureau of Tests and Measurements,
Evander Childs High School.

HIGH POINTS

VOCABULARY

Vocabulary! What a stumbling block it is to our shorthand students. So many of our failures are due to incorrect spelling or lack of familiarity with ordinary words. Recently I had occasion to place a commercial graduate who had done excellent work in her studies, especially in shorthand. I was very proud of her and expected to hear glowing praise of her work. My pride suffered a very severe blow, when for the first few months, she just managed to get along. One of the criticisms leveled at her was

that she was so immature in her knowledge of words, their meaning and spelling.

This limitation cannot entirely be taken care of by teachers of shorthand. I know that we have so little time and so much to do, and it seems so difficult to convince pupils of the aliveness of words. At James Madison, we use the following method to help the student build up both a shorthand and longhand vocabulary. Each pupil, at the beginning of Stenography 3, buys a small, alphabetically indexed, loose-leaf note book. This book is always kept on the

desk. When we encounter a new word, either in outline, spelling or meaning, down it goes into the book, in its proper alphabetical place. It is discussed and a note is made of its derivatives or of similar words bearing out the same principle. For example, let us take the word *overlook*. We discuss the spelling and the shorthand outline. The class gives me a few other words beginning with *over*, such as *overlook*, *overwhelm*, *oversight*. These are all written under one another. A spelling rule is then evolved and written with the group of words. Neither the outline nor the spelling is thereafter apt to be forgotten.

When a word is chosen for definition, its meaning is obtained from the context of the letter, and a few sentences using the same word are then presented by the class. As for spelling, we are constantly finding material for our books.

Pupils learn to use these books by themselves and are always adding to their lists from their personal errors and experiences. These same books can be kept for more than one term and referred to very easily. Since they are kept on the desk, they are accessible without waste of time.

My star pupil is now doing very nicely. She has come to realize very clearly that her ability to spell correctly and use words properly means keeping her job. Our pupils will never fully appre-

ciate the practical importance of what we try to teach them until the knowledge actually means earning a living. We can only hope that our teachings may provide a good foundation.

ANNE M. PATENT.

James Madison High School.

TWO STUDENT WORK SHEETS IN CORRELATING BOOKS AND EXPERIENCE

I. WORK SHEET IN CHARACTER STUDY

To cover a unit of six to eight weeks in a fourth term class.

Objective: To learn what the terms "character" and "character development" mean and how these are illustrated in biographies and in a character study novel.

Materials: Silas Marner (for class study)

A full-length biography (for class study)

Biographies (for reading outside of class)

Newspapers and magazines (for reading out of class)

Personalities of students, their friends and relatives.

Activities:

1. What do I mean by "character?" What character traits do I admire and dislike? How can we tell what kind of a character a person possesses? Are first impressions likely to be correct? Can we determine a person's character by his appearance, facial expres-

- sion, handwriting, conversation, and so forth.
2. Why am I what I am? To what extent am I responsible for the formation of my character?
 3. Which is more important in the formation of a person's character: heredity or environment? (A few students will bring in reports on the evidence from various sources).
 4. To find examples in the newspapers or magazines or in real life or in fiction of one of the following:
 - a. unselfishness and sacrifice
 - b. a person with a strong (weak) character
 - c. unfairness and injustice
 - d. a perfect person
 - e. a good way (a bad way) that people get what they want
 - f. a person who overcame difficulties that would have defeated most people.
 5. Is it possible to change our character? Can I give an example of a change in myself or someone I know, according to the following scheme:
 - a. Progress. How I overcame a fault or bad habit. How I overcame a prejudice or intolerant attitude. (To give an example or how I learned to understand the feelings of someone I misunderstood)
 - b. Going Backward. How I acquired a fault or bad

- habit. How I developed a prejudice or intolerant attitude.
6. Assignments 4 and 5 illustrated in Silar Marnet.
 7. Assignments 4 and 5 illustrated in biography used as class text.
 8. Suppose someone were going to write my biography (or that of someone close to me) what are the most important things that I have done or that have happened to me that I would want to see included? What are the important events in the life of a person? Are events important in themselves or in the way we react to them (that is—to whom they happen)? Are there people whose lives could *not* be made into interesting biographies?
 9. To dictate my life story to the class in terms of topic 8 with each member of class writing it up in his own fashion.
 10. To ask my father or mother for an autobiography in terms of topic 8.
 11. To determine whether I have ever met a person in real life or in fiction who possessed a character I should like to have.
 12. To tell why people hurt and fail to understand each other, with examples from real life or from books I've read.
 13. To describe the traits pos-

essed by a person with a fine character and to answer these questions:

- a. Is he a person who never has made mistakes?
 - b. Is he one admired by all who know him?
 - c. Is he a wordly success?
 - d. Is he intelligent, well-educated?
 - e. Is he a happy person?
 - f. Has he had an easy or hard life (what is the effect of misfortune on character?)
14. Family Album. To bring photographs of relatives to class, describing several members of my family according to question 13.
- Measuring my attainments:*
1. Do I better appreciate the development of an individual's character in a work of fiction or biography, am I better able to measure this development in a real person?
 2. Am I more aware of the factors responsible for the traits of character which people have?
 3. Am I aware of the kind of person I would like to be?
 4. Am I more tolerant of other people's faults and weaknesses? Am I more aware of my own?
 5. Will I be better able to recognize a fine person when I meet him?
 6. Do I better understand the qualities that make a biogra-

phy interesting and important?

II. WORK SHEET IN "IDEALS"

To cover a unit of about six-eight weeks in a 6th term class.

Objective: To learn something of the importance of ideals in the life history of individuals and groups.

Materials: Idylls of the King (for class study)

Tale of Two Cities (for class study)

Biographies, especially lives of scientists, reformers, etc., (for outside reading)

Novels (for outside reading)

1. To present to class an example of a person who suffers or dies because of devotion of an ideal drawn from:
 - a. my personal knowledge (friend, acquaintance, relative)
 - b. the daily newspapers
 - c. history
 - d. a novel or biography
2. To select one individual from list A and one from list B and tell what ideal is appropriate to their position or to the part they play in life.
 - A. Mother, father, child, grandparent, brother or sister, friend
 - B. Teacher, lawyer, doctor, minister, business man, soldier, policeman, writer, journalist, athlete, sportsman, judge.
3. To determine which of my ideals are worth, in order to

maintain, one or more of the following:

- a. a few hours of my time
 - b. a part of my allowance or income
 - c. a great deal of time and money
 - d. very great personal inconvenience
 - e. intense physical suffering
 - f. sacrifice of many precious possessions and relationships (family, job, career, and so forth.
 - g. death
4. To tell which people in the following groups seem to have the most ideals, basing my statement on evidence drawn from newspapers, magazines, biographies, books studied in school, people I have known:
- a. children or grownups
 - b. men and women
 - c. business people or professionals
 - d. employers or employees
 - e. writers or scientists
 - f. Americans or Europeans
 - g. modern nations or ancient ones
 - h. civilized countries or primitive peoples
 - i. college bred or non-college bred persons
 - j. Democrats or Republicans
5. To determine whether ideals are desirable or possible and whether they make us happier or not; also, to find out why people have them, and why some persons have a great

many ideals and others have none. To decide on the causes I would like to devote my life to, and the wrongs I would like to right. Do I know a person who hasn't a single ideal?

6. To determine if there are ideals which are undesirable and unhealthful. To give examples of two true ideals and two false or harmful ones.
7. What are the greatest enemies of ideals? Are any of the following necessarily opposed to ideals: money, ambition, age, lack of leisure, selfishness, narrow-mindedness, a family?
8. To describe something perfect in any one of the following fields.
 - a. in food or eating (that is, a perfect meal)
 - b. in some outdoor scene (of the highest type of beauty)
 - c. in some art (poetry, prose, painting, dancing, music)
 - d. in clothing
 - e. in some sport or game
 - f. the human form
9. To describe something perfect in any one of the following human relationships:
 - a. teacher-pupil
 - b. parent-child
 - c. two friends
 - d. seller-buyer
 - e. employer-employee
 - f. ruler of country-subject
 - g. persons of different political faith

h. persons of different religious faith

To now answer the questions "Why is perfection in topic 9 harder to attain than that in topic 8?"

10. To determine what things about human nature I find most objectionable and what I would most like to change. Can human nature be remade? Can we abolish falsehood, selfishness, greed, disloyalty, hate. Should human nature be remade? How?
 11. To answer the following questions:
 - a. Give one example of the type of person that makes a nation truly great.
 - b. Who are the five greatest human beings who have ever lived? Why were they great?
 - c. Give an example of a false leader.
 - d. Who are the five greatest leaders of mankind who have ever lived? Why were they supreme leaders?
 - e. What leader of the present or of the past would I like to follow or to have followed?
 12. To apply topics 1, 6, 7, to "Idylls of the King"
 13. To apply topics 1, 6, 7, to "Tale of Two Cities."
- GEORGE LAWTON.
Evander Childs High School.

VISUAL AIDS IN ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY

The need for visual aids is felt especially by teachers of Geography. The syllabus in being enriched, covers so much ground that after a while the series of products, industries, countries, and places studied becomes merely a series of names. The pupil talks glibly of winter wheat, spring wheat, long staple cotton, but in most cases has no conception of what these products look like.

His concept of these products, of processes like steel making and mining, is enriched only to a trifling extent by the meager and inadequate illustrations in the text books.

To make the subject live and real he should see how things are made, actually, or in a moving picture; touch, handle, and see products which he hears described; see adequate illustrations in the form of posters, charts or other printed matter of places and things which are being studied.

Problems that face the chairman or the teacher are where can these materials be obtained? How can they be used effectively? What are satisfactory sources for visual aids?

WHERE TO OBTAIN VISUAL AIDS

The problem of motion pictures is somewhat different from other materials available; therefore, this list is not arranged logically but

in a way, which, in the writer's experience, will be most useful. Instead of listing the different types of visual aids and where to obtain them, mention is made first of motion pictures and then followed by sources of visual aids of different types.

Motion Pictures

The best source for educational films suitable for Geography, is the American Museum of Natural History. The museum maintains an excellent film library and a delivery service. It has branches in all boroughs where films may be received or delivered. Those who are unfamiliar with this service should write to the museum for a list of topics, the nearest branch where films may be obtained, and instructions concerning the procedure for reserving films.

Governmental Bureaus

The Federal Government is perhaps the richest source of illustrative materials. The chairman or teacher should obtain, first of all, from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., a pamphlet which lists all government publications. This is free of charge.

Specific materials may be obtained from the departments affected. The writer has found the following departments unusually helpful.

Department of Commerce—statistics, printed matter, reports.

Department of Agriculture—booklets, other illustrative materials, samples or descriptions of types and grades of agricultural products.

War department—maps and charts of navigable waters and canals of the United States.

Department of Interior and Power Authorities like the T. V. A.—charts, diagrams, and posters describing the various governmental projects involving electrification, building of dams, etc. These charts also describe very effectively, how the entire countryside is changed through the damming of waters and give clear explanations of the workings of hydro-electro plants.

Consumer's Advisory Board—publishes a pamphlet called "The Consumer's Guide", which is sent free of charge to all those who apply.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics—in addition to its monthly "Labor Review", has periodic reports which are of interest.

In addition to the Federal Government, considerable help may be obtained from various state and municipal departments, especially those which include in their province agriculture and marketing.

Business Organizations—A very prolific source of tangible products such as raw materials of various types and also of motion pictures and printed materials, are

the trade associations in different fields. For example, The American Iron and Steel Institute not only prints a monthly booklet called "Steel Facts", which it issues free of charge, but also has periodic descriptive pamphlets and motion pictures on the making of steel. The specific examples of trade associations to which one might turn are too lengthy to be given here. However, the writer has obtained samples of almost all raw products such as lumber, cotton, silk, grains, green coffee, cocoa beans, from trade and business associations. A similar and satisfactory source of sample materials is the Commodity exchange. Such exchanges will be glad to supply satisfactory visual aids, or refer the writer to other sources. The teacher who consults a list of such associations will find that the names themselves suggest the products and will find that in most cases, these organizations are more than willing to supply materials. A list of trade associations in the United States may be obtained from the Department of Commerce or from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. A rather long list is mentioned in Spengler and Klein, *Introduction to Business*, (McGraw Hill Book Company) pages 196 and 197. The teacher might also consult classified telephone and commercial directories. *Large Corporations*
Many of the makers of national-

ly advertised goods will supply complete display cabinets showing the process of manufacturing their products from the raw materials to the finished goods. Among these may be listed such firms as the Hershey Chocolate Company, Arbuckle Brothers, American Sugar Refining Company, The Anaconda Copper Company. This list need be limited only by the ingenuity of the teacher. Many other firms are willing to supply both materials and printed matter, or to refer the inquirer to a satisfactory source.

Foreign Consuls In This Country

Posters, printed materials, and samples of a country's important products may be obtained by applying to the New York offices of Foreign Consuls. Some foreign countries also maintain here, special trade commissioners and tourist and railroad bureaus. All these may be approached profitably for materials.

Pupils Themselves

The writer has obtained many interesting and valuable teaching aids from his own pupils. Each pupil chooses a particular product or industry as his term project. Especially are those industries encouraged in which parents or relatives are engaged. Pupils have brought to the writer such raw materials as asbestos, raw silk,

kapok, and many types of fibers.
THE ORGANIZATION
OF MATERIALS

Departments often have fine collections of visual materials and printed matter whose use proves to be ineffective. The reason for this is a lack of organization. First of all, teachers are not aware of the materials on hand; secondly, the chairman or the teacher in charge is often unaware of exactly what he has in the line of visual aids. In many cases where they know that these things are in the department, nobody seems to know just where the required article, map or poster is when it is needed. To overcome these hindrances, then, the teacher or chairman should

1. Take an inventory of all materials, maps, posters, printed matter, and so forth.
2. Give copies of this inventory to all teachers, so that they may be informed of what materials are available.
3. Have everything carefully placed, so that the person in charge will always know where to look for the desired article.
4. Have the person who borrows any materials sign a receipt or fill out a library card, so that the person in charge knows where the article is, who has borrowed it, and the date.

PROCEDURE FOR USING VISUAL AIDS *Motion Pictures*

At Thomas Jefferson, there is a

squad under a faculty adviser, which shows films in classrooms and operates school projectors. These boys have been trained, and meet the classes on schedule with their equipment.

Rooms have been supplied with sockets, so that any room may be used; even those rooms having ordinary window shades. These are drawn down during the showing of the picture.

Teachers are given a schedule in advance of the dates of such films which will be available, and the titles of the films. The group in charge of showing the films is also given a schedule of the dates together with room numbers at which they are to project the film during different periods.

Each teacher knows, then, that Thursdays will be devoted to the showing of pictures, and since the teacher has a schedule of titles, the assignments are based upon the particular picture which will be shown that week.

Materials and Commodities

When a specific country or a product is to be studied, the lesson will be made more real if the products of the country, pictures, maps, or other materials are displayed in the classroom that day. Similarly, if the topic is sugar, wheat or copper, then samples of the products and printed materials should be displayed. The actual classroom use of materials depends upon the teacher, the class, the

nature of the materials, and other factors.

Printed Material and Posters

In some cases there are enough pamphlets to go around for an entire class. In this case, the teacher obtains the pamphlets, gives them out to the pupils, receiving a receipt from each pupil. This may be kept over night or for one or two days by the pupils. Such pamphlets supplement the text book in particular phases of the work, for example, the making of sugar, the making of steel, a visit to an automobile factory, or the Swift Food Map.

There are projectors which can throw upon a screen any picture, map or diagram, so that the whole class can examine it at one time. This is particularly useful in studying some of the charts of the T.V.A. and other power projects. Pupils, through these illustrations, get a clear conception of how a dam stores up water and creates electricity.

The teacher should be warned in the use of materials, especially those coming from chambers of commerce, trade associations, foreign consuls, and large corporations, that these institutions and organizations supply these materials mainly for purposes of advertising. Therefore, there is constant danger that the classroom become an organ for propaganda. It is obvious that the makers of products or the consuls of countries will try to show their country or products in a valuable light. This is not objectionable; the teacher, however, must be alert to prevent any use of materials which will cause indoctrination or make out of the classroom an advertising tool for these manufacturers. The teacher, aware of these dangers, and guarding against abuse, can develop rich sources of supply of visual materials.

JACOB KLEIN.

Thomas Jefferson High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

PUPIL ACTIVITY IN HABITUATING ROUTINE IN A SHORTHAND CLASS

There is generally one best way to go to the blackboard, to handle papers, and to recite in class. If there is not, one way should be selected from among several which are good, and the students should be perfected by drill and practice until that one way becomes the best for them. Habit is a great

time-saver and a conservor of energy. Good teaching is generally found where work has been planned and systematized.

The teacher's duty is first to organize routine on a sound basis. A considerable cause of teacher-imposed discipline need is lack of a uniform working plan or routine. Most beginning teachers have had as much training for teach-

ing as have the experienced teachers; they may know more about new methods of teaching; but they are less efficient than experienced teachers in managing a class.

Routine of a Shorthand Class.

Several pupils are assigned in rotation to special duties. Pupils A and B erase the blackboards. Pupil C rules the blackboards properly, and places pieces of chalk conveniently. Pupil D writes the homework in shorthand on the blackboard. Pupil E records absence.

Pupil F dictates selected material to the class and calls on several pupils to read. Another pupil is asked to read the homework assignment for the next day. The class copies the assignment in their assignment book, after which pupil F requests the class to open their shorthand textbooks and refers to a shorthand plate for reading practice. The class reads the shorthand plate in concert. As soon as the class finishes reading the shorthand plate, pupil F takes her seat.

The teacher calls on three or four pupils to read their homework. Pupil G distributes the homework folders. The homework is checked by monitors, placed in folders, and these folders are collected by pupil G and placed on the teacher's desk.

Summary. All routine duties should be reduced to habitual pro-

cedures shortly after the term begins. The purpose of this is to produce order and system, and to save time and energy. Other routine activities include the following: entering the room, caring for hats and wraps, writing on the blackboard, and conferring with other pupils.

Good routine lightens the work load of the teacher and adds to the comfort and happiness of the pupils, as well as to their growth in learning.

DAVID J. KAPPEL.
Far Rockaway High School.

CRAFTS IN THE MODERN CURRICULUM

It's about time they stopped it altogether. Years ago we stopped some of it with difficulty. In those days it went somewhat like this: "What, sonny, you want to take up art? What did you get in Math? Eighty-five! In Latin? Ninety-five!! Boy, you're too good for this subject. Art's for thick heads." Then a comradely slap on the back. But we stopped that, and we proved, the prevailing poor taste in art supporting the contention, that fine ability or understanding of art in any form requires a fine mind; and that it doesn't take the more twisted brain to draw the straighter line between two points—free hand, of course.

Today, their "out" is this: "Throw him into shop or crafts. If he can't use his head maybe

can use his hands." Then the same speaker at the assembly, "Boys and girls . . ." (rubbing of hands, sweet smile, teeth showing) "we must learn to admire those ideal Renaissance craftsmen, Giotto, Pollaiuolo, yes, even Cellini. Remember, too, that among his best friends, Giotto could count the brilliant Dante, and oh! those sonnets of Michelangelo." Ah yes, but how about *their* I.Q.'s, Mr. Speaker? The paradox is obvious.

Then here's another angle. The other day in our school we put on a display of hammered and pierced metal. Crowds of open-mouthed drawing students gathered around. "Who did those?" "Why can't we make those things instead of drawing them on paper all the time?" Not for you, my boys and girls, you're too smart for this stuff. That's just why, years later, Mr. Academick, of the high forehead always hits his thumb when hanging up the new picture his wife just bought, and he's simply crazy about the Saturday Evening Post's covers, but he can't see how anyone can like the funny looking ash trays and rugs those Mexicans make.

And he never will, unless he gets the chance to manipulate tools and to actually create three-dimensional forms instead of working them out on two-dimensional paper. The empirical basis is the only one which will lead to a genuine appreciation of the better

man-made things including painting and sculpture, towards a fairer dexterity with tools and materials.

Let the students of today do more with their hands, all of them, no artificial distinctions, and we will help to develop a society, which will surround itself with objects of real beauty in every walk of life, a society which will deeply admire the skilled worker and craftsman, and which will not have to abide by a separate aesthetics for the fine, as distinct from the "useful" art. Then can we discover, as did the Renaissance, that a great mind is essential to great work of any kind, particularly the crafts; and not the reverse, as some pedagogues would have it.

NAT WERNER.

SIDNEY SCHREIBER.

THE AIMS AND PURPOSES OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS PRINTING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Industrial Arts Printing falls within the scope of general education, and because the legitimate objectives in general education are materially different from those which are essential in vocational training, a determined effort should be made to draw the line critically between the aims, subject matter and methods which are intended to serve the purposes of general education and those which serve the purposes of vocational training.

Owing to the necessity for this sharp cleavage, the instructor of printing in the Junior High School

must be a man not only expert in the manipulative practices of printing as a trade, but he must also have a thorough knowledge of its historic, artistic and, yes, romantic phases.

For the teaching of printing in the Junior High School prohibits the narrower field of either purely technical or exclusively artistic training.

The primary objective in the Junior High School print shop is not to teach printing but to teach of it. In other words, the inculcation of technical expertness or artistic perfection is wholly out of place in this school print shop and should never be even attempted by the teacher.

The first purpose in the mind of the teacher projected to the boy, should and must be the why and wherefore of printing, its prestige, its influence, its marvelous and dynamic power in the advancement of civilization.

Next, the teacher should use the concrete pieces of metal called type to teach the boy his language, to break up words, to put them together again, to play with them, to separate them and combine them, to assemble them into trenchant sentences and buoyant paragraphs.

He should show his pupils the *purpose* of the letter. The sharp staccato of the italic for emphasis; the booming heaviness of the bold for conspicuousness; the quiet angularity of the roman for dignity,

and the cathedral beauty of the Gothic for solemnity.

Manually the pupil should be taught a line construction of evenly spaced words, in a width for facile reading. He should be taught the beauty of a clean proof made by a thin layer of pitch black ink and a biting impression on clean white paper. He must be taught to keep his press clean and well oiled and the impression even and adequate. He must be taught *order*.

And last, the teacher should correlate the simpler manipulative processes in the print shop with subjects in the school curriculum such as arithmetic, composition, grammar and spelling, and so adjust his lessons and jobs as to increase proficiency in the above mentioned subjects.

Only under the most favorable conditions may the Junior High School Print Shop be regarded as the initial step toward a higher technical training in the Senior vocational school.

For the boy who is to become a capable printer must have inherent aptitudes as to mental alertness and temperament equal to those which will take him, successfully, through a course of academic training.

If a boy does not possess these qualities, then all, even sincere attempts on his part to become proficient as a printer are in vain and the result can only be mediocrity.

In view of the fact, therefore,

that the function of the Junior High School print shop depends absolutely upon the organization of the school of which it is a part, it is hardly feasible to definitely establish that function as a generality.

If the school organization permits the admission to the print shop of a type of boy with an I.Q. that ranks him as average or a little above, then the course of study in the shop may be one of preparation for Continuation in the Senior vocational school.

If, however as is generally the case, the shop is used as part of the curriculum of the type of boy whose I.Q. ranks him as being unable to cope with the usual academic work of the school, then the function of the shop comes within the scope of general education and not vocational training and must be used as such and nothing else.

OTTO C. WERTHEIMER.

Junior High School 129, Man.

TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD THE MAIN THEME OF A GUIDANCE PROGRAM BE VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE?*

In asking ourselves this very specific question, "To What Extent Should the Main Theme of a Guidance Program be Vocational Guidance?" we must bear in mind very clearly the needs of the pupils we are to serve. Guidance is one phase of education which seems above all others to be a conscious effort to meet all the needs of all the pupils

* A talk given at a Panel Discussion on Vocational Guidance.

in our schools. It aims to meet their needs not only in assisting in equipping them with skills, habits and attitudes useful in the distant future and translatable or transferable into accomplishments which will function in the life of the adult world, but it endeavors to help each child solve his problems in the here and now. These problems are frequently very pressing and need immediate solution.

The needs of the largest number of pupils in any school will quite naturally determine the set-up of guidance in that school and the factors upon which we will place emphasis.

A study of the literature of guidance, at least of that period during which guidance has come to be recognized as an essential element in school service, will show the origin to be in the field of vocational guidance. More recently we have begun to be aware of a need for other phases of guidance. Thus educational guidance, social guidance, health guidance and other forms of guidance have come to be recognized as matters of legitimate concern for the school. Even emotional guidance and moral guidance, which in earlier days were felt to be more the concern of the parents with the help of the clergy, are now problems for guidance counselors who will often call to their aid psychologists or psychiatrists.

In considering the matter of how much to emphasize the voca-

tional feature of guidance, perhaps we should ask ourselves the basic question "To what extent should education itself be vocational?" My answer to this is that directly or indirectly all education should have as one of its major objectives vocational competence. What motive for children is half so compelling as the life career motive? At the secondary level, many children will be definitely engaged in some form of vocational education. Others will be just as consciously making preparation for advanced schooling which will ultimately result in fitness to follow a profession or a career in business, finance or industry.

The recent troublous, unsettled economic conditions have no doubt tended to divert the mind of many pupils, and teachers as well, from the theme of vocational competence. Better times seem to be returning and work for young people seems to be more plentiful. However, the resumption of normal economic conditions will inevitably be accompanied by many changes in industry. It behooves vocational guidance workers in all types of schools to be alert to changing conditions of employment.

There is no doubt that in the general or academic high school the need for vocational guidance seems to be less pressing because usually no definite, direct vocational education is being offered. This does not mean that the need

is non-existent. As a matter of fact, there may be even more need in the general high school for vocational guidance than there is in a vocational, technical, or commercial school.

Those pupils who have entered upon a vocational type of curriculum can be assumed to have already made a more or less definite vocational choice. Those in the general high school probably have little idea as to what careers they are suited for. In such circumstances, there is great need in the general high school for vocational guidance. Unfortunately, there is usually little in the way of facilities for such work. There may be, as in some junior high schools, courses in "Occupations". In these classes, many occupations will be presented from a text book by a person who may be trained and experienced in none of them. Another expedient may be adopted, that of having "Vocations Day", at which representatives of various industries or professions will come to address the students upon careers in their various fields. Here the grave danger is that young, impressionable persons will be swayed by the suavity, glibness, or optimism of the speakers, or tend to be repelled by one who honestly presents any of the difficult or unpleasant aspects of his work.

The ideal situation for vocational guidance is that prevailing at a technical high school. In this

situation students are tested and interviewed as to their interest in and capacity to perform technical work before being admitted. They then go through a tryout and general foundational period before being permitted to enter any specialized technical field. During this period, counsel is freely given by men trained and experienced in the particular field in which they attempt to give guidance. Such men should have a clear cut conception of the primary requisites for success in the field, the types of work available, the opportunities for advancement, and other essential information. No matter how well equipped such a person may have been originally, he should be aware of the need of constantly keeping abreast of changes in the occupations.

All guidance counselors should understand the extremely limited extent of our knowledge of at least two factors which enter into advising students for or against the choice of an occupation. First, the lack of valid objective tests for most of the manifold traits which go to make up human personality; and second, the lack of definite information as to what the requirements are in the way of personality for the workers in the occupations in which people engage. A proper appreciation of the difficulties in the path of him who attempts to advise a student for or against an occupation will

make all guidance counselors humble.

The ultimate test of the effectiveness of a program of vocational guidance is the learner's ability to secure employment and advancement in the occupation. And there at the outset, guarding the portals, sits the more or less sympathetic and understanding personnel officer of industry. It is gratifying indeed to find that the judgment of the school as to the capacity and attainments of our youth is verified in the main by their reception into the work-a-day world. However, and here again is something to give the guidance worker pause, we quite often find those pupils who have been serious and able students rejected and some superficial but smiling young villain welcomed with open arms.

How much vocational guidance can be given in an academic school? Enough surely to make pupils aware of the major divisions of human labor, given in such a way as to make them respectful of the achievements of mankind and hopeful for better things to be accomplished; vocational guidance which stops short, surely, of the assumption that any counselor can say with finality to any pupil "You should or should not enter this or that occupation."

Vocational guidance as a means of focusing the attention of young persons upon the fact that there is a world of worthwhile work to be done by those who will fit

themselves to do it, should be a major objective of our educational program.

HAROLD E. TAYLOR.

COMMENTS ON THE FRENCH II YEARS REGENTS EXAMINATION

A test, it seems to me, must be relative to some objective or aim; that is, before we can construct a test intelligently, we must have some definite notion of what it is we are trying to test. If that is so, and if we are to take seriously the recommendation almost universally made that reading should be the principal objective of modern foreign language study, then we must expect that the Regents examination will test the ability to read, that is, the ability to understand the written word. Whatever device is adopted for testing this, whether translation, summary, questioning in French or English, conversion of one type or another, it should be a device that tests the ability to comprehend what is read.

Judged by this standard, questions III and V are attempts in the proper direction. But since some facility to understand the spoken word is a secondary objective that is generally accepted as worth while, we ought to accept questions I and II as attempts to test this particular ability. Since, too, the student is expected to know something about the country and

the people whose language he is studying, question X must be considered proper enough.

However, if we do not include an ability to translate into French among the feasible objectives for the first two years over and above the reading objective, then question IV can base its claim for inclusion in a test of reading ability only upon the argument that if a student can translate from English to French he can, *a fortiori*, understand a passage in French of equal difficulty. But as a test for reading, its validity is vitiated by the following two considerations: a student may do well upon this question and still be unable to understand French at a more difficult level, or he may not do well on this question and still be able to understand written French at any level of difficulty. In other words, no satisfactory correlation has been established between the results of this question and the ability to read.

Question VI calls for the principal parts of verbs and a particular person and number of a particular tense of these verbs. This question is altogether formal. Emphasizing principal parts and giving synopses may be an effective teaching device and may enable students to recognize forms rapidly enough to allow them to read readily—certainly the advocates of the grammar method, at least, hold this opinion—but the student may

know these parts very well in a formal sort of way and not be able to recognize them in context, or on the other hand, he may not know the parts in their formal array and still be quite adept at grasping the finest shade of meaning conveyed by each and any one of them in context; for this question suffers from the weakness of practically any formal device: it is largely irrelevant, inconclusive, and of uncertain efficacy.

Questions VII, VIII, and IX, which are of the conversion or substitution type, suffer from an analogous fault, namely, that no conclusion can be drawn from a student's ability to manipulate actively the various items of French grammar. However valuable exercises of this kind may be in some other frame of reference—and there are language teachers who advocate the study of formal grammar for its disciplinary value, for its inherent value, and for its transfer value (nor am I at all sure that I am not one of them)—still skill in such exercises is not necessarily indicative of ability to read. This point is brought home perhaps more forcefully to us at the High School of Music and Art, for we have a fair number of students who are French, that is, who speak French at home and who read French newspapers and books. Yet these students, when subjected to a test that is largely one of grammatical

manipulation and forms, often get barely a passing grade, and on the whole, do not do nearly so well as many American children who have become expert at this sort of grammatical "game" or "puzzle" but who, on the other hand, are not nearly so well able to read. To conclude, however, from the results of such a test that these French children cannot read or speak French is, to say the least, grotesque. Again, if I were asked to explain the paradoxical cases of students who pass the III year examination and at the same time fail the II year examination, I should ascribe it to the fact that the 20 points allotted to the composition and the additional 5 points to aural comprehension on the III year paper displace the same amount of formal grammar.

My point is, in brief, that if we are teaching the student how to read, then we must test the student's ability to read, and that we ought to concern ourselves less with testing those means, or devices, or situations that may or may not foster that ability, or that may or may not be conducive to the formation of reading habits. It is, of course, natural enough for teachers who use the so called "oral approach" to reading, to be satisfied that the student's oral proficiency is sufficient evidence of reading ability, just as it is not unnatural for an advocate of the grammar method to be convinced

that the student's ability to give forms and manipulate grammatical and syntactical bits is ample evidence of the ability to read, and so on with other methods. I should think, none the less, that it is more sensible and more logical to test reading directly, less circuitously, and unambiguously, rather than to test proficiency in any device that is thought to induce this reading ability. It is moreover more enlightening and conclusive to test reading ability directly as the end product and thus judge of the efficacy of the method employed by the results obtained rather than to form a conclusion about the end product from certain skills in the various means, devices or methods employed.

I have no doubt that some students can learn to read by learning to speak first, or by learning formal grammar, or by studying intensively a limited amount of reading matter, or by reading a vast amount rapidly, or by translating faithfully and minutely a given text; but if we are sincere in our claim that we wish to test reading ability, I merely ask whether it is sensible or fair to test students for proficiency in any particular device according to the accidental preference of the individual examiner or the committee. I say, then, let each teacher decide for himself what devices or means he finds suitable to teach reading or to instil read-

ing habits: let the Regents examination concern itself exclusively with determining directly and unequivocally whether the ability to understand the written word is an accomplished fact or not. And in this way, the state wide and uniform examinations of the New York State Board of Regents may supply objective evidence of the superiority of one method or another for the attainment of this specific objective.

H. STOCK.
High School of Music and Art.

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE FIFTY-SECOND ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSN.

December 29-31, 1937, at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

This year the American Historical Association radically changed the nature of its program. Since it met in Philadelphia upon the sesquicentennial anniversary of the creation of the Constitution, it centered its attention on that important document instead of following its usual custom of illuminating the past with discrete bits of new historical lucubration. This body of distinguished scholars took under consideration the political, social and economic ideas which found expression in the Constitution; they analyzed the document itself, and what is even more significant, traced its influence on American and European history. Because the subject matter itself is of such transcendent importance, it is to be

regretted that so few secondary school teachers availed themselves of the opportunity to attend. Despite the fact that usually there was little or no time left for questions and discussion, the dispassionate and critical spirit which the addresses exemplified was itself a source of inspiration and enlightenment.

Among the more notable papers of special interest to high school teachers were those by Charles A. Beard, Morris R. Cohen, Edward S. Corwin, William W. Crosskey, Merle E. Curti, Guy Stanton Ford, Walton H. Hamilton, Max Lerner and Gaetano Salvemini. Dr. Beard repudiated both chance and determination as sole explanations of history but asserted that economic interests constitute the most important deterministic force in history. Professor Crosskey examined minutely the phrase "commerce among the several states" with a view to understanding its meaning in the 18th century. His conclusion was that the Fathers had purposely made it ambiguous and that it constituted a universal grant of power. Merle E. Curti of Columbia University showed that the attitude of reformers toward the Constitution has depended upon the extent to which the Constitution could be made to serve or oppose the aims of the reformer. Dean Ford in the Presidential Address before the Association asserted that the industrial revolution had so changed the

American scene that today there must be more governmental action for the general welfare. His peroration was a plea for the continuation of the right to speak the truth, for in his opinion, without liberty all scholarship decays. Max Lerner, editor of the Nation and therefore an unusual guest among academic historians, developed the thesis that minorities had always ruled the United States by hiding behind political and economic myths. He condemned the confused thinking of Walter Lippman and Dorothy Thompson, who attacked numerical majorities, as smacking of fascism, and he defended democracy expressed by majority vote at free elections. Dr. Salvemini asseverated that 18th century concepts were being misapplied in the 20th century to justify social and economic inequities.

Professors Cohen, Corwin and Hamilton considered different phases of judicial interpretation. Dr. Cohen attacked the whole notion of judicial supremacy. He was especially critical of Marshall's decision in the Marbury vs. Madison case and reproached historians who by accepting bad logic had built up myths. Dr. Corwin posed the question, "What kind of judicial review did the Framers have in mind?" and in a long address, he answered that he did not know and no one could find out. Walton H. Hamilton dramatically traced the startling meta-

morphosis of the "due process of law" clause of the 14th Amendment in the hands of the Supreme Court.

The three-day session was concluded with a luncheon conference sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies. At this conference Dean Carl Wittke of Oberlin College spoke on the freedom of teaching as part of the democratic way of life. Emphasizing the need for a non-partisan school system, he stated that the schools "belonged to both sides of the class struggle" and that their duty "was not only to tolerate differences of opinion but to encourage them." Dr. Wittke opposed indoctrination though he declared that "no teacher worthy of his hire can be neutral in the controversies of his day, and no mind has ever been discovered that succeeded in being completely objective." Yet, he pointed out, "Teachers have learned that the

road to success runs . . . in becoming politically sterile and anemically neutral on all the issues that concern the community."

At the same session Miss Ruth Wanger, principal of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls, described her experiences in fighting for academic freedom in Philadelphia and called on teachers to unite with alumni, parent and labor organizations in the cause of democratic education.

LOUIS A. SCHUKER.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

COURSES IN ITALY

The Italian University Bureau, Casa Italiana, Columbia University, has issued a folder of information on courses for foreigners to be given in various Italian universities during the spring and summer of 1938. A copy of this announcement may be obtained on application to that Bureau.

Enrollment in the Different Foreign Languages in Senior High Schools as of March 15, 1938

Languages	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total
French	9,992	10,158	16,546	15,538	7,876	7,213	438	342	68,103
German	3,246	3,279	3,368	3,104	1,099	1,078	78	21	15,273
Greek	31	5	8	29	9	4	—	—	86
Hebrew	464	471	430	464	107	71	—	—	2,007
Italian	2,105	1,860	2,172	1,708	681	658	123	68	9,375
Latin	4,457	4,739	4,263	4,040	1,691	1,594	252	208	21,244
Spanish	10,138	9,577	7,807	7,201	1,357	1,333	88	32	37,533
	30,433	30,089	34,594	32,084	12,820	11,951	979	671	153,621

Total High School Population: 257,508

Enrollment in the Different Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools as of March 15, 1938

Languages	8A	8B	9A	9B	RB	RC	RD	Total
French	7,813	8,518	6,624	6,436	4,575	3,718	3,398	41,082
German	428	501	411	562	338	274	226	2,740
Hebrew	—	—	—	—	38	—	—	38
Italian	1,546	1,563	1,206	919	296	261	127	5,918
Latin	227	252	210	236	550	507	428	2,410
Spanish	1,266	1,186	903	890	253	216	228	4,942
	11,280	12,020	9,354	9,043	6,050	4,976	4,407	57,130

Total Junior High School Population: 131,022

A CHALLENGE TO VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

A survey challenging to vocational counselors and teachers is one made public by Mr. W. C. Ackerly, of the Personnel Department of the New York Stock Exchange. Of 4,000 discharged office employees, of 76 different firms, only 10 per cent lost out because of lack of skill, while 90 per cent lost their jobs because of undesirable character or personality traits.

Mr. Ackerly classifies the reasons for failure of the 90 per cent as follows:

Carelessness	14 per cent
Non-coöperation	10 "
Laziness	10 "
Dishonesty	8 "
Attention to outside	

things	8	"
Lack of initiative	7	"
Lateness	7	"
Lack of ambition	7	"
Lack of loyalty	3	"
Lack of courtesy	2	"
Miscellaneous causes	14	"

And in the matter of promotion to bigger and better jobs, only 23 per cent lost out because of lack of skill or knowledge, while 77 per cent lost out because of failure to improve in such character traits as those named.

The Bureau of Vocational Guidance of the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University, made a similar study in 1925 of the causes of discharge of 4,375 employees. Their findings are as follows:

Causes of discharge (4,375 cases)*

1. Skill or technical knowledge

Incompetent	1,110 cases
Slow	200 "
Physically unadapted	170 "
Spoils work	16 "

1,496 cases, 34 per cent

2. Social understanding

Insubordination	486 cases
General Unreliability	453 "
Absenteeism	442 "
Laziness	317 "
Trouble-making	179 "
Drinking	179 "
Violation of rules.....	142 "
Carelessness	120 "
Fighting	104 "
Misconduct	100 "
Dishonesty	91 "
Loafing or sleeping	77 "
Dissatisfaction	23 "
Habitual lateness	17 "
Miscellaneous	149 "

2,879 cases, 66 per cent

* From figures quoted in Allen's "Common Problems in Group Guidance," p. 7.

Vocational guidance is generally thought of as helping young people to make vocational choices. The National Vocational Guidance Association, however, defines vocational guidance as the process of assisting the individual to (1) choose an occupation, (2) prepare for, (3) enter upon, and (4) progress in, the occupation. Greatest efforts in vocational guidance work in secondary schools are expended upon the first two steps—

assisting the student to make a wise vocational choice, based on study of the world of occupations and on evaluation of his own interests and abilities, and helping him secure the necessary training. When the counselor comes to the third step and endeavors to assist the student to enter the occupation he has chosen, and for which he has received preparation, the all-important factor of employer attitude arises. Is the

employer ready to accept the product of such vocational guidance and training?
If a counselor should say to an employer, "We believe John Jones is well fitted for the opening in your accounting department; he has studied the field of occupations and weighed well his own interests and abilities before choosing Accounting as his life work; he is completing the four-year Commercial Course and stands in the top one-fourth of his class," such a recitation would have little or no weight with the employer. The employer has his own criteria for selecting his employees, and character and personality traits he considers most important.
"Is he clean-cut, courteous, well-poised, does he speak clearly, does he get along with other people, does he have to be told to do things or does he use his head, is he a self-starter?" the employer asks.
At a recent career conference in New York, senior college students were questioning the personnel director of a large mercantile firm. "Would I have a better chance for an executive position with your firm," asked a student, "if I studied two years more at a graduate school of business administration?" "No," said the personnel director, "it would make little difference whether you had one degree, or more, or none. What I would want to know be-

fore hiring you would be something about your personality, your attitudes, if and how you think. Do you have ideas? Can you present them well? How do you get along with other people? Were you popular in college, a leader in social or athletic activities?"

Consideration must be given to the demands of the economic world if students are to achieve the third and fourth steps in vocational guidance—get a job and succeed in it. Of what value is guidance in the choice of an occupation and training in the tools of an occupation, if the student is unemployable because not socially amenable?

It is imperative that students be helped to acquire the desirable qualities asked for in the business and social world. Students must be given opportunities for experiences in which they may practice and acquire valuable personal traits and social skills, such as listening respectfully to another's opinion, willingness to accept the decision of the majority, willingness to try, to experiment, willingness to accept failure and try again, ability to speak clearly, distinctly and to the point, ability to meet people with ease and secure favorable response, graceful acceptance of leadership as well as ability to lead.

A small number of students now have the chance to practice and learn these traits and skills, largely through participation in

extra-curricular activities, but opportunities for these experiences should be brought into the regular curriculum to help a greater number of students become personally and socially well-adjusted.

PAULINE R. STRODE.
James Monroe High School.

INEFFECTIVE GEOGRAPHY TEACHING—WHY?

That geography is taught ineffectively has been admitted by teachers and supervisors in our New York City schools. It was in an effort to determine possible causes for the situation that the writer conducted a questionnaire survey in November, 1935 of all the geography teachers and principals in the Junior High Schools in New York City. The results represent replies from 59 schools, or 82% of all New York City Junior High Schools. They may serve to indicate some likely causes for this ineffective teaching.

There are prescribed minimum requirements for the time allotted to geography, three periods per week in the seventh grade, and two periods per week in the eighth grade. Nevertheless, a great variation in practice exists. There are some schools that do not meet the prescribed minimum time allotment. There are some schools in which the subject is not taught in grades in which it is listed as a prescribed subject. This may be due to the lack of a sufficient

number of teachers trained in geography, but the existence of an eligible list precludes this possibility. The variation in time may be due to local conditions which warrant the adjustment. It may also be due to the individual principal's own opinion as to the value of the subject. Regardless of the cause, the condition does exist. We cannot fail to recognize that an inadequate time allotment may undoubtedly be a cause of poor teaching of geography.

Teachers appointed to the Junior High Schools of New York City are licensed to teach special subjects, i.e. Geography, History, Mathematics, etc. Geography however, is taught by the holders of 17 different licenses. Only 28% of the geography teachers have been licensed to teach the subject. This condition may be due to the lack of a sufficient number of licensed teachers of the subject, but this reason has already been discounted. The condition may be due to an assumption on the part of school authorities that Junior High School teachers, who come chiefly from the lower grades, have had experience in teaching general subjects. In some schools, a social studies course is organized and principals may then desire to have geography teachers licensed in history. Almost three-fourths of the geography teachers do not hold licenses indicating their special fitness to teach the subject. The assignment of geography

classes to teachers with licenses and interests wholly unrelated to the subject may be a cause of failure to teach the subject properly.

More than one-fourth of our geography teachers have but one geography class per week. About three-fifths of the geography teachers have three classes or less per week in geography. This condition may be due to program problems which compel this distribution of classes. There may also be a lack of capable geography teachers, which might cause a spread of the geography classes among many teachers. Furthermore, a principal may possibly believe that each teacher should teach her own class in geography since it is scheduled for only two or three periods per week. It then follows that most geography teachers have between two and nine periods per week in the subject. The Junior High School program contains thirty-five teaching periods per week. If from two to nine periods are devoted to teaching geography, then the major part of the teacher's program is allotted to the teaching of another subject or other subjects. It is quite possible that a teacher with only one or two classes in geography will give the major portion of her energy toward teaching her specialty or the subject requiring the greater part of her program. It is, therefore, quite likely that this prevailing

practice of spreading the geography classes among many teachers giving each relatively few classes, may be a cause of poor teaching of geography.

The investigation revealed that there is relatively little use of magazines by our geography teachers. Thirty-eight magazines are used in teaching geography. There are but eight of these that are used by more than five of all the geography teachers in the New York City Junior High Schools. Therefore, about two-thirds of the magazines are being used by only one or two teachers. About one-fourth of the geography teachers use no magazine at all. The results indicate a general lack of utilization of a type of current literature which undoubtedly might aid in vitalizing the teaching of geography.

Approximately nine-tenths of the geography teachers have traveled to the various continents, Canada, or west of the Mississippi River. The extent of the travels vary with the individual. However, extensive and varied travel are of inestimable value to the geography teacher. A complete or almost complete lack of firsthand travel experience may be a contributing cause to ineffective teaching of geography.

About three out of every four geography teachers and junior high school principals are in favor of continuing the teaching of geography as a separate subject.

It is not to be supposed that the approximate identity and proportion in both groups is entirely due to the influence of the pressure of the principal's opinion in the school. Examination of the questionnaires received from the various schools indicates a division of opinion within many schools. There may, however, be some schools in which the teachers' replies were influenced by their knowledge of the principal's attitude in this respect. There may also be some inexperienced teachers of the subject whose replies are conditioned by a training recently obtained at college. There may be some teachers whose replies merely reflect the opinion of some other member or group of the faculty. The decisions of some teachers may not be the result of a deep consideration of the relative merits of the issue. Nevertheless, as has been shown previously, approximately one of every four geography teachers have not indicated a preference of the continuance of the teaching of geography as a separate subject. These teachers believing in the effectiveness of a social studies course may not be interested in the teaching of geography as a separate subject. This lack of teacher interest may readily evidence itself in poor teaching.

About three-fifths of the geography teachers that are training school graduates have had no geography courses beyond training

school. Almost half of the geography teachers that are college graduates have not had geography courses at college. About one of every six geography teachers have had no geography training beyond elementary school. There is a definite lack of intensive training in the subject among geography teachers. This may be attributed to many causes. Some teachers may believe that geography is only an elementary and junior high school subject. Since geography is not generally continued in high school, it is therefore unimportant and need not be studied intensively. Authors of geography texts have contributed to this lack of interest. There have been many bulky geography texts that not only present a forbidding appearance but also contain verbose, technical content much of which might have been omitted. Colleges and teacher training institutions have also contributed to this lack of interest by not developing an interesting well-organized set of courses in the subject. The lack of specialized professional training in geography which we find so extensive among geography teachers provides an inadequate background that may be the cause of ineffective teaching.

This survey indicates that the ineffective teaching of geography may be due to inadequate time allotment, insufficient number of specialists trained to teach the

subject, the teacher's or supervisor's lack of interest in teaching geography as a separate subject, too great a spread of geography classes among teachers regardless of interest or licenses, lack of utilization of current magazines as a teaching aid, and the lack of travel and professional training among geography teachers. The problem then remains for the supervisor to determine which of the possible causes apply in particular situations. Then a suitable remedial program should be planned and effected with the sympathetic coöperation of the geography teachers. If this procedure is followed, it may be that we may remove some causes of the ineffective teaching of geography in our schools.

HERMAN S. LEVI.

Franklin K. Lane High School.

ABOUT FAILURES IN MATHEMATICS

Occasionally statistics appear which show, in a very general way, that the number of failures in Mathematics is somewhat larger than in most other subjects. It is not ordinarily mentioned, however, that this lack of success in Mathematics prevails mostly in Elementary Algebra. In the later terms and especially in the more advanced grades, the number of failures in Mathematics is quite small.

Modern educators have been spending much time and energy

attempting to diagnose this academic ailment. Needless efforts are made to justify the existence and the retention of Mathematics as a major department of study. The preponderance of criticism insinuates faulty instruction and unsuitable subject matter. Mention is never made of the fact that some of the recipients of this instruction may be totally devoid of the irreducible minimum of mental power requisite for the absorption of any mathematical knowledge. Why is it assumed that every young member of the community is possessed of the ability necessary to comprehend even the most rudimentary mathematical study? Are there no exceptions? Without a certain amount of selection, most enterprises would never succeed. For example, a life insurance company could not conduct a successful business if it sold insurance to all applicants without the so-called selection by means of medical examinations. Those colleges having little or no entrance requirements invariably descend to inferior levels.

There is no pre-requisite for elementary Algebra. On the contrary, students are often not permitted to exclude the subject from their programs, even after failing in it miserably and showing neither desire nor inclination to repeat it. The classes are diluted accordingly. Pupils, who for the most part cannot hope to profit by indulging in this particular activity, retard

others who are able to grasp Mathematics and also many who reveal an ardent interest in the subject. The fact remains that the course of study has been revised continually. Any part of it that might be considered difficult is now excluded. Despite all these changes, great numbers still cannot and do not succeed in this field.

We are therefore inclined to conclude that it is really an injustice to the pupil to compel or to advise him, directly or indirectly, to include Elementary Algebra in his program after furnishing reasonable evidence of unsuitability for this work.

GEORGE SOSNOW.
James Madison High School.

REVIEWS

WEALTH, CHILDREN, AND EDUCATION

By John K. Norton and Margaret A. Norton, Teachers College, Columbia.

This exhaustive statistical survey of educational inequalities among the various states presents dramatic evidence of tragic failure to provide an adequate education for all the children of all the people.

The neglect to adjust these disparities in educational opportunities, the authors point out, is surely paving the way toward national disaster. It is obvious to all that education is democracy's only insurance against chaos. An alert, active, militantly interested citizenry is the base upon which national stability fundamentally must rest. The present inequities here noted must be remedied immediately before illiteracy and discontent have ravaged youth beyond redemption. For it is in these areas that the various forsaken

menaces to democracy breed silent and unchecked by the beneficent forces of liberated intelligence.

The authors draw one conclusion from the facts they have gathered. Education is a national obligation and must be so administered. Those states unable to provide the minimum educational deficiencies to their children must be subsidized by a government which has pooled its resources for the purpose of equalizing educational opportunity. Individual states unable to meet their responsibilities must relinquish their feudal hegemony over their darkened subjects and allow federal intervention to do what they have failed to do. Such a proposal will meet with the now familiar cry of "Dictatorship" but such zealotry ought have little place in the larger view which seeks to confer upon all those blessings which now fall to comparatively few.

The plight in which a shock-

ingly large number of states find themselves in failing to provide an education for their charges is fraught with social implications of vast import. We are indebted to the Nortons again for their thoroughness and their sanity, for their balanced reading of the facts, for their forthright conclusions, and for the deep concern they manifest in democracy and its fulfillment.

A. H. LASS.

AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

By E. D. Grizzell, Thos Nelson.
\$2.00.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

By F. Englehardt and A. V. Overn, Appleton-Century. \$2.75.

There is nothing unique in either of these texts intended to serve as guides and points of orientation to the teacher. Neither is singularly felicitous in style or organization of material. Both, while striving for the dynamic, integrated view, are distressingly dull and prosy. They fail signally to catch the chaos and excitement that is American secondary education today.

Dr. Grizzell's slim contribution is in tabloid parlance, a "quickie." It offers a bird's-eye view of the relationship between current economic, political, social, cultural trends and education. He senses very clearly (as who does not?) the staggering task of preserving and perpetuating democracy by

providing an adequate education for all the people. Dr. Grizzell notes, without too fully expanding its implications, the need for orienting education in terms other than abstract intelligence.

The book fails, however, to enunciate with any compelling clarity, an articulate and pervasive program for secondary education.

Drs. Englehardt and Overn have produced a competent, scholarly, and thorough survey of the best current practices. They conceive of education as a dynamic organic process in which student, teacher, curriculum and the larger out-school life are inextricably intertwined. Theirs is not a brilliant treatment, by any means, nor is it particularly inspiring. It has the traditional virtues of solidity and soundness but is hardly calculated to inflame the young teacher with visions of education as it might and can be.

A. H. L.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

By J. B. Stroud, MacMillan.
\$2.50.

This is a simple, not too technical exposition of the principles of educational psychology. The approach of Dr. Stroud is eclectic and in accord with the most modern findings although older experimentalists are not neglected when their contributions seem to have point.

There is a certain fine tolerance

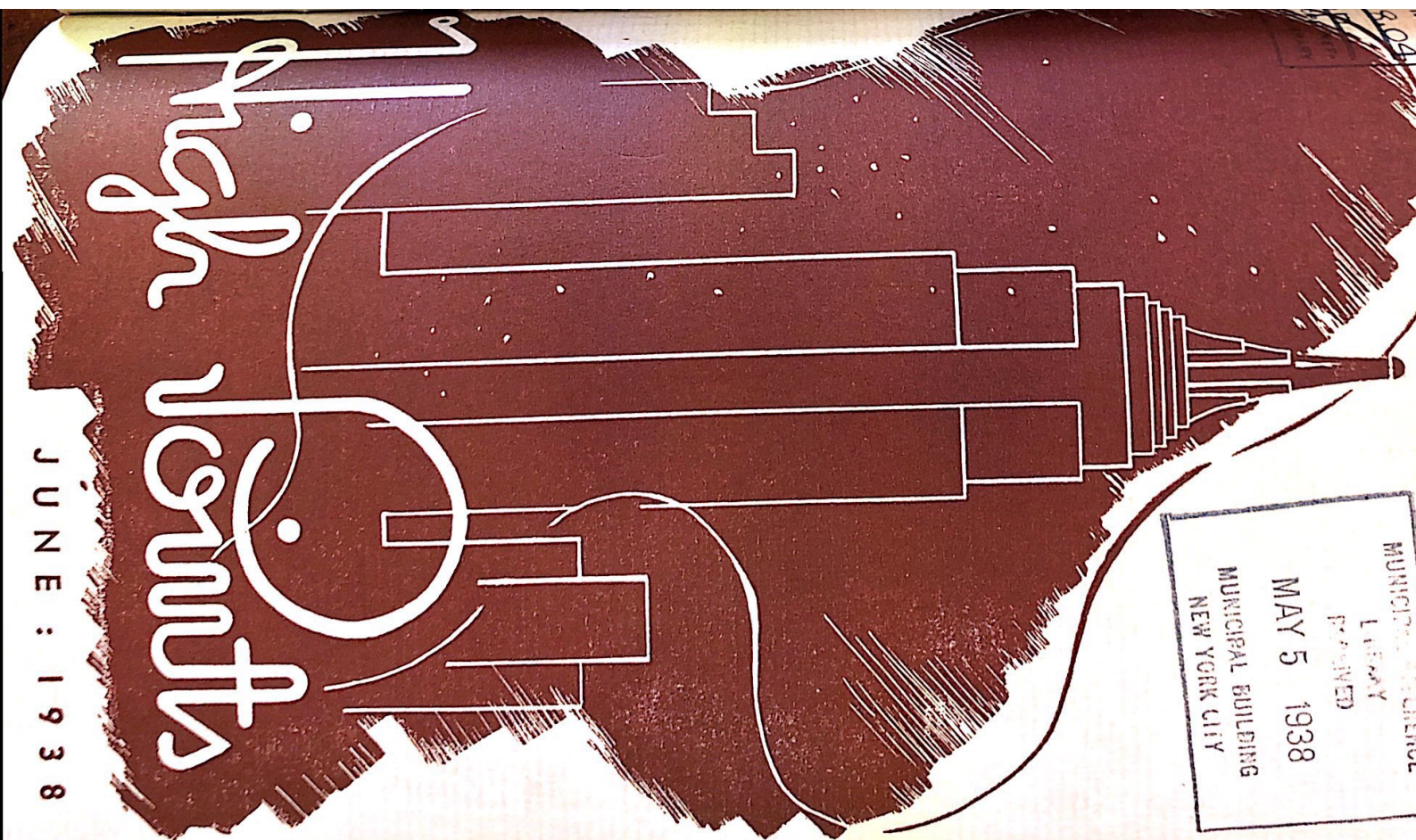
that pervades this text. In a field where violent partisanship is the rule, it is good to discover an intelligent modesty and straightforwardness such as Dr. Stroud manifests. Yet the student is not left wholly at the mercy of conflicting doctrines. The author is emphatic in his insistence that the development of a critical intelligence is an indispensable part of the students' education here as elsewhere. And nowhere is there greater need for circumspect evaluation than in this area of human

confusion which is virtually crawling with cults.

We have read many more pretentious tomes than this, many more exhaustive and exhausting treatises, but few have successfully combined, as does Dr. Stroud's treatment, the practical and sound with the basically usable.

A gratifying feature of this volume is the ruthless and beneficent avoidance of the statistical tumescence that we have come to associate with texts of this nature.

A. H. L.



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HIGH POINTS

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THE NEWSREEL AND PUBLIC OPINION*

My side of this discussion is moving pictures and propaganda. I know very little about moving pictures in general; my job is to make newsreels.

However, when Mr. Martin Quigley, publisher of *Motion Picture Herald*, was at the Williams-town Conference last Summer, he said what I believe to be the attitude of the industry as a whole. "If you have a personal message to get across, if you have propaganda to get on the screen, good, bad, or simply well financed, go get a camera and go make a picture and see who will look at it. The people of this country want non-propaganda pictures, they pay to be entertained."

When it comes to subversive influences in newsreels, there are a lot of reasons why news stories don't get into the reels, but propaganda is not one of them.

I remember the greatest newsreel picture ever made. A cameraman happened to be on board the *Lusitania* when she was torpedoed. He got the boats being lowered over the side. He got the stokers pouring up from below decks. Survivors told how he set up on the

bridge and got the captain sticking to his post. He got the ship as she rolled further and further. And then the *Lusitania* sank and the cameraman forgot to jump. One of the greatest pictures made never hit the screen. Lots of them don't, but it's not because of propaganda.

The newsreels, on the whole, are made by former newspaper men. As a news editor, I sit in front of a map of the world and move little pins around. Each pin represents a cameraman, and there are hundreds of them.

A flash comes in over our Associated Press printer—perhaps an earthquake in India. We send a cable, and on the other side of the world a cameraman climbs out of bed and grabs a plane for the disaster.

After he gets his pictures, the race is on to New York. Probably the four other newsreel companies have the same pictures. The first one reaching New York releases, the others don't. They can't afford to admit they were beaten. They just pretend they never heard of the story and take the loss. The theatres pay for first pictures.

Now these men who make the pictures aren't propagandists. And a cameraman is generally the first person attacked when a group does

* An address delivered at the Herald Tribune Auditorium on Saturday, Jan. 15, 1938.

not want its actions recorded for the public. I've seen strikes where the unions refused to let a cameraman work, and then the police hustled them. Neither side wanted a record of what was going to happen. In most floods, the local Chamber of Commerce is most touchy regarding a picture record of the damage. I remember a little town on the Eastern shore of Maryland had a lynching a couple of years ago. When our camera truck rolled into town, the leading citizens took the truck and its thirty-five thousand dollars worth of equipment and threw it into the river. Our men took refuge in a farm house and I had to send a plane in to get them out of town.

Our men are out to get the picture of anything that is news. People with a propaganda purpose are out to block them.

There are five newsreels in the field today. All of them are owned by stock companies. Each of these companies operates to make money for its stockholders and stays in business only so long as it makes money selling its product to the theatres. They would probably cut each other's throats for a dime, and no company is going to jeopardize its business for an individual's personal opinions. There are cheaper ways of buying propaganda than to try to influence movie companies who are used to gambling with millions.

I remember, years ago, during the depression, we were borrowing

a lot of money from a well known banker. It happened that he was subpoenaed before the Senate Investigating Committee on Banking. He didn't do so well before the committee but we shot him. And we released him as we have released more interesting subjects, and for that matter more important personalities. But before the pictures actually hit the theatres we had our alibi ready and called him up to sound out his reactions. His answer was, "Was I interesting?" "Yes." "Well, I suppose you people are paid to make pictures of what you think is news."

Aside from the people who make and own the newsreels, one might ask whether the very nature of their setup is conducive to propaganda.

The newsreels are the only news mediums that carry no advertising. They do not run advertising as the newspapers do; they are not sponsored by advertisers as most radio programs are. While I think the old time hokum about advertisers controlling news is stupid, at the same time I would like to emphasize the fact that we are not even confronted with that future threat. At the time of the Copeland Pure Food and Drug Bill, we made stories exposing rotten cosmetics. We were threatened with a suit for a quarter of a million dollars. We were backed up in the matter by the United States Department of Agriculture. Right now we are being sued for \$350,000 on a pure

foods story that we ran. We are going to beat that suit because I know the facts are true, but with all that money around do you think the newsreels can be bought with advertising?

In the last year, three newsreel pictures were shown which, in my opinion, absolutely belie the possibility of propaganda controlling the newsreels. The newsreels could make propaganda pictures until doomsday and never get enough to compensate the harm done to certain vested interests by these three pictures.

There were three major reasons for not showing these pictures if the newsreels were a propaganda medium. First, it was against the policies of this government. Another reason—it was against society's point of view. Third—it was an indictment of the economic system. The three stories, of course, were the Panay incident, the romance of the King of England and Mrs. Simpson, and the Chicago riot pictures.

Before the Panay pictures reached this country, the entire incident between the United States and Japan had been settled. It was against private American interests, as well as the interests of the American and Japanese people to have these pictures released, with the danger of stirring up fresh trouble.

I have gathered almost a hundred editorials from various newspapers each discussing "public pol-

icy" in connection with the release of the Panay pictures. A large church association attacked the newsreels claiming that this release would re-influence the people. Pittsfield, Mass., banned the showing of the Panay pictures. The movie companies knew there might be trouble in the theatres. They definitely knew there would be repercussions in their business in Japan. Still the pictures were released.

The entire incident of the King of England and Mrs. Simpson was a complete rebuttal of the fact that the government of any one country, as well as the conservative social viewpoint of the world at large, can influence newsreels when it comes to their obligations to cover news.

Now, understand the newsreels are not an exclusive American system. They are international in coverage, international in distribution, but for the greater part owned by American companies. A company like Paramount will make newsreels for twenty-eight or thirty different countries. It will also have studios and laboratories in most of them. It will have a sales program running into millions, depending on local governments. The company is at the mercy of local governments when it comes to taxes and film quotas.

A scandal concerning the king of one of these countries occurs. The government presses all kinds

of unofficial censorship. Nice people don't dare mention the subject except in whispers. The British Film Board which controls American money theatres in England (almost as many as there are in America) intimates that the subject is taboo. Many conservative people in this country feel that the matter should be hushed up. The British press falls in line and suppresses the news. But you will remember that the newsreels released a story of the affair in this country. You will certainly remember the pictures of the King's abdication and his wedding to Mrs. Simpson released over here, even if not permitted in England. The newsreels went ahead on the story just as if they were not jeopardizing millions of dollars in investments and sales in the British Empire.

One day early last Summer, I received a telephone call from our cameraman in Chicago. He was just about to leave with the other newsreel men for the Indianapolis Auto Races. They are practically sure fire routine for every newsreel and besides the boys always have a big party down there. He did mention, however, that he had been out to the Republic Steel plant in South Chicago that day and things look tough. Well, I fussed around and finally pulled him off the auto races and told him to stick on the steel strike. As you know, the next day ten people were killed out there and

we got a rather famous riot picture.

I would like to emphasize the fact that the Chicago riot pictures were not suppressed by Paramount News. Senator LaFollette was holding a Senate investigation in Washington at the time. He asked for the pictures. They were used as evidence, and as soon as they had been put into the record, he returned them to us for release. He expressed the appreciation of his committee for our handling of the matter. Paramount news then sent five hundred prints of these pictures out to every exchange we have. Some theatres ran them, some didn't for fear of disorders. Some towns suppressed them under their local police or censorship powers. Of course, we have no control over these factors. But as far as Paramount News goes, regardless of the economic factors involved in a story, we will cover that story, and release that story. We haven't been bought yet and we aren't for sale at any price.

Well, I suppose I can tell you that the people making newsreels aren't propagandists, that the medium isn't an easy one to control, and that during the last year we have released plenty of stories which were against our interests. On the other hand, I suppose you can point to hundreds of news stories that we have not released in pictures. Obviously, there are influences guiding our editorial policies but our sins are more in

the nature of omission forced on us by the nature of our medium, than for any propaganda reasons. Whenever I meet people who are interested in what I do and I tell them that I work for the newsreels they always say, "How interesting, but why do they run so many battleships and bathing beauties and baby parades?" The answer is that we are a news medium. We have the prerogatives of a news medium and the social obligations that go with those rights. We also have the circulation problems of any other news agency. We circulate in theatres rather than over the air or in newsprint. And we have to consider our circulation medium when making our product just as much as a newspaper has to determine the price of its newspaper, or a radio company in dividing up its air time between sustaining and commercial programs.

Have you ever considered what you would put into a newspaper if you were making it for the entire United States, with a hundred million circulation? What would you print that would interest equally the shop girl in Oklahoma City, the school child in Nebraska, and the Wall Street banker? The comic strips, probably. And as a matter of fact, they are the backbone of national syndicates, such as those run by the Hearst newspapers. The newsreels reach an audience of ninety million people each week. They are shown in eighteen thou-

sand theatres, in every type of community. They are seen by every class of person. Largely from the material contained in these newsreels we make up reels for every country in Europe and for almost every country in the entire world. We make news pictures for China and Japan, pictures for Germany and also for Russia, pictures for Paris and the South Sea Islands. We have to recover the production costs necessary for making moving pictures.

We do not operate on the old premise that the intelligence quotient of the people is twelve years. But we are forced to select our material on the basis of the simple, universal interest values: movement, mass, human interest. And while bathing beauties may not be the perfect common denominator of news, they certainly can't be called propaganda.

Then, too, our sale is not made directly to the consumer. Newsreels are sold to theatres and the theatre owner considers them a very minor part of his program. In fact, in the beginning, the newsreels were used as chasers. That is, they were so bad they were put on to clear the house after the feature picture. Originally, a movie program consisted of a feature picture, a comedy, a pictorial reel, or fashion or sports short, a newsreel, and perhaps a cartoon and a trailer. Then the double feature came along. Now there is time only for two long pictures and a newsreel.

Sometimes the trailer is cut into the middle of the news at that. However, the theatres want included in the ten minutes of the newsreel all the elements of the shorts program which they had to discard—comedy, fashions, sports, lightness, laughter, music, oh yes, and a bit of something called news.

Moreover, the theatres on the whole do not want real news. They do not consider it their function to educate. They are an entertainment medium. An exhibitor reasons this way. He pays hundreds of dollars to rent a feature picture: a story, a romance, not an actuality. It fits into an atmosphere of music, love, gilt paint, soft lights, and happiness. And an audience pays its money to escape from its workaday life of facts and reality. Along comes the newsreel with hot news—a disaster, a race riot, labor trouble; something to make the audience squirm or think or want to argue. Where is the thousand dollar program effect that the theatre manager has so carefully built up? Destroyed by the newsreel.

I remember when liberals in a good many towns got excited because Mr. Hearst owned a newsreel. I know the crowd that makes that reel. They are liberal-minded, news-conscious people without any particular bias. They bought Russian pictures from the same sources that the other newsreels did, and edited them in much the same way as the other reels. But the heat

was on in the Hearst papers against Communism and therefore a number of groups of one kind or another booed the Hearst newsreel. Because of the demonstrations, a theatre out in Long Island dropped the Hearst reel. About this time, Mr. Randolph Hearst arrived in America by boat. Now, Mr. Hearst's newspapers fired me years ago and I don't like him. At the same time I do consider him one of the fourteen important men in the United States today. Therefore, when we picked up an exclusive interview with him aboard ship on the situation in Europe, I thought we had something pretty good—especially since we had trimmed Mr. Hearst's own reel.

As I told you before, this little theatre in Long Island threw out the Hearst reel because of all the fuss. The owner bought Paramount News instead—publicized the fact—and the first reel he ran had this interview with Mr. Hearst in it. You can imagine what happened then.

Finally, how about the people for whom the newsreels are made? When they are in a theatre they are forced to look at the particular news item whether or not they like it. This is not true of any other news medium. A person in the theatre can't turn the page or switch off the radio. He can only close his eyes and stop up his ears or yell or hiss his disagreement with the pictured facts.

The newsreels have made pictures of the Scottsboro Case and have seen them hooted off the screen in the South. They have made pictures of every kind of convention—wet, dry, Republican, and Communist, and in some sections the shows were broken up because of them. Pictures of Abyssinian troops make the Italian sections wild. Show pictures of the Nazi flag or book burning in Germany and watch some parts of New York burn and shriek by turn. Nearly every picture of a controversial nature arouses protest from the audiences.

Occasionally, I am sorry to say, newsreel pictures arouse something more than protest. Some years ago when the newsreels were less experienced, a kidnapping took place in San Jose, California. The son of a wealthy department store owner was kidnapped, murdered, and thrown into the bay. A couple of suspects were held in the San Jose jail. Well, one newsreel reenacted the crime, showed where the kidnapping took place, how the man was killed, and thrown off the bridge. This was staged with the assistance of the police. It was a fair picture, much less sensational than was presented by the newspapers.

The prints were rushed out. They reached the San Jose theatres one morning. The same night a mob took the San Jose jail apart and lynched those two suspects. The newsreel got the picture of

the lynching, too, but it learned some editorial judgment in regard to releasing inflammatory pictures.

It is easy to pick flaws in the newsreels. The flaws aren't propaganda or subversive ideas. Unfortunately, they are more difficult to remedy—as difficult as changing educational standards and human nature.

Of course, we presage a change in the newsreel industry. In fact we are experimenting and discussing it now.

How can we make the theatre realize the importance of news and give the reels a fair chance to tell their stories in pictures? There is a great deal of discussion about turning the newsreels into two reelers—giving them enough footage really to do something worthwhile, and also to use them to fight the double feature.

An interesting experiment that is being tried in several parts of the country is the locally made newsreel, using the specific problems and news of the community as its news criterion. This newsreel is in competition with the national reels that have to make the same type of bathing beauties and battleships for ten thousand cities.

Experiments of the same nature are occasionally tried by making special newsreels for specific class groups, instead of the same reel for the shop girl and the banker. For instance, one type of newsreel would be shown in labor union

communities, and another type for the art and theatre communities, another for college towns. You can compare these reels with the *New York Tribune* and the *New York Post*. Each paper appeals to its special circulation groups.

Another possible solution to the problem is the growth of the news-reel theatres. These theatres carry no feature programs which break up or overshadow the newsreel in importance. They frankly present news—not entertainment. They are becoming increasingly popular and there is considerable discussion of establishing a coast to coast chain of such theatres.

The basic problem, I think, comes back to you educators. News-reels present facts. There are a great many people in the world

who do not want to see the picture record of these facts when they disagree with them.

I know the problem is an old one to you. However, I do think the average person in this country has become more open-minded about accepting facts with tolerance. I think the educational strides of the last generation are developing a new and far freer form of news presentation among all news agencies. And as you continue to educate people to accept a broader point of view of world affairs, so can we press forward towards making newsreels that will contain basic social news.

WILLIAM MONTAGUE.

Assignment Editor,
Paramount News.

A SURVEY OF CAUSES OF STUDENT FAILURE IN LANGUAGE STUDY

Language teachers today are at the crossroads. They can continue along a path that is leading to a declining enrollment, student failure and discouragement, and a lack of interest in languages; or they can step upon the path that will lead to a revived student interest and appreciation of their language studies.

Many teachers have already chosen the latter path. These, by adapting the course of study to the changing needs and interests

of their students, have been able to show the rich, cultural value of the foreign language to their students. But it seems that the majority of language teachers are still treating language study with emphasis on a perfect mastery of language forms at the expense of student interest.

Our primary task is to make our students enjoy the study of foreign languages. Instead of meeting the adverse criticism leveled against us by an eloquent exposi-

tion of all of the values derived from language study, let us convince our students of these values, and we will not be asked to convince educators.

Let us, therefore, consult the changing needs and interests of our students.

In the hope of ascertaining the

reactions of our pupils to our teaching, I sent out questionnaires exploring the attitude not only of the teachers but of the students as well, as to the causes of student failure and teacher discouragement.

Questionnaires were returned by 166 foreign language teachers and 597 high school students from all parts of New York City.

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Will you please put the numbers 1, 2, 3 and so forth in order of importance before the following items.

1. Many pupils fail foreign languages because:
 -Classes are too large, and pupils do not get enough individual help.
 -Pupils get too much homework in languages.
 -The grammar is too hard, because not enough grammar is taught in the English classes.
 -There is too much to memorize.
 -The slow pupils lose interest because teachers do not call on them enough.
 - What other reasons?
2. What phase of your language work do you enjoy most? Put the numbers 1, 2, 3 etc., before every item, in order of the phase you enjoy most; next; and so forth.
 -Culture; songs, pictures.
 -Reading new stories in class.
 -Learning to speak.
 -Writing compositions.
 -Reading aloud in class stories prepared at home, studying new words, idioms, synonyms, and so forth.
 -Dictation and aural comprehension.
 -Dramatizing parts of the stories you read in class.
 -Translation from the foreign language into English.
 -Translation from English into the foreign language.
 -Reading books in English on the country whose language you are studying.

3. Would you enjoy your language study more if there were no Regents tests? Check one and give reason.
.....Yes. Why?
.....No. Why?
4. Would you prefer being in a class with students (1) better..... (2) worse....., (3) equal..... than or to you? Or in a class of all three types of students.....
5. My average mark in languages has been:
80-100..... 65-80..... Below 65.....

QUESTION ONE: Causes of Failure
(597 Students)

Choice	Per-centage	Classes Are Too Large	Grammar Too Hard	Too Much To Memorize	Slow Pupils Discouraged	Too Much Homework
1st	31%	119	101	76	44	42
2nd	26%	95	100	62	73	69
3rd	19%	66	86	83	89	96
4th	11%	34	55	136	94	98
5th	10%	32	58	81	129	126

An analysis of the above figures shows that 31% of the students feel that they fail in foreign language study because they do not get individual help, because of large classes; 26% feel that their failure is due to difficult grammar; 19% attribute their failure to the excessive amount that they are required to memorize; 11% feel that the "slow pupils lose interest because teachers do not call on them enough"; and 10% give as a cause for their failure "too much homework."

STUDENTS' COMMENTS ON CAUSES OF FAILURE APPEARING MOST FREQUENTLY

(The phrasing is that of the students, but the spelling has been corrected.)

1. I don't like French, but I have to take it because I need the credit.

2. The teacher does not hold my interest. Languages are dull and boring.
3. I don't keep my mind on work in class because having fun is more interesting; but there is no fun in language classes.
4. I don't like Spanish, and I

5. Too many boring facts have to be known.
6. Grammar is not stressed enough in the English classes.
7. Teacher goes too fast.
8. The conjugation of too many irregular verbs has to be learnt.
9. I don't care to study, because I don't see how it will help me in future life.
10. The grammar and verbs are taught as if they were the only things to learn instead of taking the language up as

to the people behind it.

11. Teachers discourage poor students unintentionally.
12. I don't study enough. There is not time enough to study. I don't think languages are important in later life. In certain fields, maybe.
13. I have a general feeling of the waste of time in studying a language.
14. We don't know the English language well. Therefore we have difficulty with the foreign language.
15. Our teacher drills dictation, aural comprehension, and silent reading without telling us how to study for it.

QUESTION TWO: Likes and Dislikes of the Various Phases of Study

Choice	Culture	Learning to Speak	Extensive Reading	Dramatization	English Books Culture	English Translation	Dictation	Intensive Reading	Translation into Foreign Language	Composition
1st	115	85	45	27	25	24	17	11	10	7
2nd	73	61	49	24	47	29	24	16	18	13
3rd	54	57	71	31	29	35	37	32	16	19
4th	23	47	56	30	24	49	25	51	24	26
5th	33	41	45	31	26	35	30	53	27	22
6th	31	27	42	24	44	37	59	43	32	29
7th	16	29	35	33	26	17	46	70	21	25
8th	15	25	27	34	25	33	48	51	23	47
9th	22	11	25	34	34	35	23	38	60	60
10th	19	14	7	36	27	21	51	34	51	84

An analysis of the results of the answers to Question Two in the student survey, on their preferences in the phases of the language study, indicates that 31%

of the students voted for culture teaching as their first choice; 24% for learning to speak; 12% for reading new stories in class; 7% for dramatizing parts of the stories

read in class; 6% for reading books in English on the country whose language they are studying; 6% for translation from the foreign language into English; 4% for dictation and aural comprehension; 3% for reading aloud in class stories prepared at home; 3% prefer translation from English into the foreign language; and 1% voted for composition.

On the basis of the answers we see that four most popular activities in language study are culture, conversation, extensive reading and dramatization. The least popular are composition, translation from English into the foreign language, intensive reading and dictation. These all require the most detailed and accurate knowledge of memorized facts: verbs, active grammar and active vocabulary; all the items listed as boring and distasteful in the student comments.

Here is where we can further orientate ourselves to new objectives, if we have not already done so. The Foreign Language Study and the Coleman Report, which were in part the basis for our new city syllabus (1931) have made for a marked improvement along these lines, but we must go still further. Do we not still overstress the teaching of active grammar, active verb knowledge and the most accurate and detailed translation from English to the foreign language and from the foreign language into English; the witting of difficult compositions,

a flawless pronunciation, and an intensive grammatical analysis of almost every word encountered in a reading text? We should put much more emphasis on extensive reading for comprehension and enjoyment; on culture and realia, and on simple dramatization, all of which delight our students and give them a sense of accomplishment.

Let us stop worrying about knowledge for the sake of knowledge and about high scholastic standards that must be maintained at all costs. Let us try to make interest primary and mastery secondary in the elementary stages, and when students become interested enough to stay, we can lead them to achieve as much mastery as is possible in a short two year period.

QUESTION THREE: "Would You Enjoy Your Study More if Regents Tests Were Eliminated"

Yes	No
447	103

The results show that 81% of the students want Regent tests eliminated while 19% favor the retention of the test.

STUDENTS' COMMENTS MOST OFTEN REPEATED ON WHY REGENTS SHOULD BE ELIMINATED.

(The English is the students'.)

1. In a Regents class under strain all term, the teacher seems to be intent not on teaching, but

on making the students pass the Regents.

2. I worry so much about the Regents, I can't enjoy the subject.
3. So much preparation and worry involved could be used to the enjoyment of the language for its own sake, instead of the constant drilling and being reminded of learning specific items for the Regents.
4. I would not have to memorize facts that make French dull.
5. It's not what you know on paper that counts, but what you can use in and outside of school.
6. A test of three hours should not be taken as a mark for two or three years.
7. I study my verbs and grammar as if I were taking medicine, just to pass the Regents.

COMMENTS OF STUDENTS WHO FAVOR THE RETENTION OF REGENTS TESTS

1. Otherwise, I wouldn't take the language seriously.
2. Otherwise, I wouldn't study.
3. I must have a goal.
4. I want to find out how much I know.

For the 19% that wish the retention of Regents tests because they serve as an incentive for study, obviously a class test or a uniform school test would serve the same purpose.

Of the 81% who voted for the elimination of Regentes examinations, let us distinguish between those who for various reasons would prefer a class or school test to the Regents, and those who feel towards the Regents the annoyance that they might also feel towards a class or school test. Their comments indicate an annoyance with studying for marks. They see the false values that grades have set up and refuse to be motivated by grades alone.

"Being marked for everything spoils my enjoyment of the language."

"I study most because I like the subject and not because I have to pass a test."

How often we teachers hear these comments from students who are not aware that a teacher is near.

Grades are at present the contributing factor compelling students to study. If some students and parents still demand them and if we are not yet ready to abandon them, let us at least recognize them as an artificial barrier between the school room and life as it is lived outside. The more intelligent students sense this, yet we are not offering them any incentive other than high marks, when emphasis is placed on passing examinations. Let us bear this in mind and seek methods of making interest the incentive rather than marks, for such students. This is possible only when the

superior students are grouped homogeneously all term.

QUESTION FOUR: "Do Students Prefer being Classified and Grouped?"

"Would You Prefer Being in a Class With Students Who, Compared with You, Are

Equal?	Mixed?	Better?	Worse?
85	41	11	394

The results show that students prefer:

EQUAL: 74% prefer homogeneous grouping.

MIXED: 16% prefer heterogeneous grouping.

BETTER: 7½% prefer an incentive in the presence of superior students.

WORSE: 2½% prefer to shine before inferior students.

Not all students answered this question.

THE TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

WHY STUDENTS FAIL LANGUAGES

We language teachers are under fire again. "So many students are failing languages; so much money is being wasted; why not drop languages from the curriculum of our secondary schools," is the cry of educational authorities!

Has language study lost its value for students? Are we poor teachers, employing poor pedagogy; or are there perhaps other factors responsible for student failure?

In defense of our excellent teaching and the essential value derived from the study of languages, this survey hopes to ascertain "these other factors."

Will you help me by answering this questionnaire fully and by adding personal comment wherever possible?

- I. What in your opinion tends to cause unfavorable achievement on the part of some of your students? Put the number 1 before the most basic reason; 2 before the item next in importance, etc. Add other reasons not mentioned.
Pupils fail because:

.....Classes are too large. It is impossible to give the necessary individual instruction.

.....The course of study has not been adapted to the changing needs of the students. The city syllabus, with its reading objective cannot be followed because the Regents tests still call for an active grammar, verb and translation achievement. Teachers' energy is dissipated by excessive clerical duties, not allowing for time or energy for experimentation in new methods.

.....There is an insufficient use of prognostic tests for the purpose of either dropping pupils of extremely low linguistic ability, or adapting a course of study for them.

.....Pupils are not classified and grouped. There is disregard of the differences among the pupils in capacities, interests or the possible future use of the language they are studying.

.....Text-books are obsolete and teachers are allowed insufficient flexibility in the choice of their text-books.

.....Insufficient opportunities exist for giving individual remedial help to slow students.

.....Too many lessons must be devoted to the teaching of formal English grammar, since this instruction has been dropped from the English syllabus.

What other reasons?

II. Would you favor the following changes?

- A. The reduction of classes—the maximum for best achievement:
25 pupils..... 30 pupils..... 35 pupils.....

(Check 1) Any other number.....

B.....The complete abolition of Regents Tests, substituting standard school tests.

.....The elimination of the 2 years Regents test, for students taking 3 years of the language, and the 3 years Regents tests for students continuing in the fourth year.

.....The modification of the Regents tests, making them correspond to the reading objective of the city syllabus. Fewer questions on translation, verbs, etc.

- C. A standard prognostic test of linguistic ability, to be given to all entering students for the purpose of:

(Check 1)

.....Eliminating from language study all pupils showing low linguistic ability.

.....Giving such students a general language course.

.....Giving such students a culture course in English.

.....Giving such students a simplified course of study, not requiring Regents examinations.

D. Are you in favor of having formal grammar taught in the English classes? Yes.....; No.....

E. Would you be in favor of having one qualified substitute teacher assigned to every language department to give individual remedial help to the slow students?

Yes.....

No..... Why not?

QUESTION ONE: Causes of student failure

Choice	Classes too Large	Disparity of Syllabi	More Prognostic Testing	Better Student Grouping	More Remedial Help	Excessive Clerical Duties	Obsolete Textbooks	More Grammar in English Classes
1st	68	36	26	13	8	6	5	4
2nd	33	42	25	20	20	10	4	12
3rd	12	21	20	27	17	23	9	16
4th	12	17	22	16	22	13	15	13
5th	7	8	14	16	25	13	16	12
6th	11	6	13	16	19	22	19	12
7th	2	5	11	10	12	21	26	11
8th	0	2	5	3	3	18	15	43

Question One:

- 41% of the teachers found large classes to be the greatest handicap against better achievement on the part of their students.
- 22% — disparity between the city syllabus and the Regents examinations.
- 15½%—need for more prognostic testing.
- 7½%—need for more homogeneous grouping.
- 4½% — individual remedial help needed.

6. 3½%—excessive clerical duties.

7. 3%—obsolete text-books.

8. 2½%—insufficient grammar in the English classes.

1. There is agreement between the student and the teacher that lack of individual instruction because of large classes is the most important factor for student failure. It is true that this condition is not restricted to foreign language study, but no one will deny that for languages much individual drill is essential.

2. When Regents examinations

are eliminated or at least so simplified that the reading objective is uppermost in the teachers' minds, with all formal drill secondary, we will be able to hearken to our students' cry for more interesting lessons.

3. If there are not at present perfect prognostic tests, such could possibly be evolved. Also further experimentation might be carried on with the general language course, where a bit of the culture and a bird's eye-view of the language is presented, this course serving prognostic purposes.

4. The students, too, have voted overwhelmingly for more homogeneous grouping.

5. and 6. Doubtless foreign language teachers would willingly give individual remedial help to failing students during their free periods and at the end of each day, if they were relieved of their excessive clerical duties which take up this valuable time.

7. Text-books that were written in 1900 cannot serve the needs of present day language students. Changing times require new and modern text-books.

8. Many teachers suggest a pre-language grammar course for students selecting a language.

MOST FREQUENTLY REPEATED COMMENTS OF TEACHERS

- With the present Regents requirements there is insufficient time to develop a thorough

understanding of the cultural background and hence a real enjoyment of the languages.

2. There is no time for necessary drill. There should be a pre-language course in grammar to be given to students taking foreign languages to relieve the language teacher from taking language periods to teach English grammar.

3. There are an insufficient number of simple text-books, like *Colette et Ses Frères*, to present to slow pupils.

4. Unfavorable economic conditions at home and poor supervision militate against our students' studying properly.

5. Students do not know how to study.

6. They fail because of the lack of mental ability and lack of application.

7. Too many outside interests distract students from concentration.

8. There is no agency in the school to follow up the indifferent student.

9. There should be a better liaison between the city and state authorities as to the content of the syllabus.

QUESTION TWO:

Question two is devoted to the teachers' recommendations for desirable changes.

A. Size of Class for Best Achievement.

- 123 teachers or 74% favor classes of 25
- 38 teachers or 22½% favor classes of 30
- 4 teachers or 2% favor classes of 35
- 1 teacher or .06% declared that it made no difference.

B. Elimination or Retention of Regents Tests.

- 92 teachers or 55½% voted for modification of the Regents.
- 38 teachers or 22½% favored the elimination of Regents in the second year for the students continuing the language in the third year. A few schools are doing this now.

- 36 teachers or 21½% favored the complete abolition of Regents.

C. Type of Grouping Desired After Prognostic Testing.

- 82 teachers or 49% call for a simplified course of study for the slow as well as the average student.
- 41 teachers or 24½% desire the complete elimination of slow students from language study.
- 22 teachers or 13% favor a course in culture given in English to slow students.

- 21 teachers or 12¼% favor a general language course which combines culture and the simple rudiments of the language for the slow students with no Regents required. It is understood that the upper level of students are capable of continuing work with the present syllabus.

D. Formal Grammar Instruction in the English Classes for Language Students.

- 158 teachers or 95% voted yes.
- 8 teachers or 5% voted no.

E. Remedial Help.

- 156 teachers or 94% voted for this type of coaching.
- 10 teachers or 6% opposed this coaching.

RECOMMENDATIONS

We have observed the many and varied factors that have rendered language study distasteful to so many students, resulting, apparently, in declining language enrollment. The following recommendations, based on the needs expressed by teachers and students, are made in the hope that they will lead to further study and experimentation, so that language

teaching will assume a more vital place in the curriculum.

1. A maximum class register of 30 students, so that the teacher may become acquainted with and develop the individual aptitudes of each student.

2. The ultimate elimination of the Regents examinations. Until that time, a simplification of this test with greater emphasis on testing the students' comprehension of reading, and fewer questions on grammar, verbs and translation.

3. A greater coöperation between the English and language teachers so that those fundamentals of grammar absolutely necessary for foreign language mastery, should be drilled by the English teachers.

4. Homogeneous grouping into three categories of students with a different course of study for each.

A. Superior students; for whom we may retain our present course of study and technique.

B. The average student; whom we hope to reach and hold in our language class through the simplified course that I have been advocating throughout the survey.

C. The slow students; for whom the proposed "Syllabus for Students of Lower Linguistic Ability" (HIGH POINTS, September, 1935), should be introduced in all the schools. (It is in use now in only a few).

5. Teachers must be relieved of excessive clerical duties. More clerks should be employed to handle the routine matters that occupy a major part of the teachers' time, so that time and energy can be devoted to professional study and experimentation in progressive methods of teaching.

6. Unemployed substitutes or additional teachers should be assigned to language departments to assist in remedial coaching. This will be excellent professional training, and will save so many of our failing students, as supervisors who now have W.P.A. teachers doing this work, can testify.

7. More modern text-books that are simple and interesting must be introduced into our classroom.

RAY YALLER.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

THEY HAVE EARS AND THEY HEAR NOT!

A RADIO SURVEY

Some months ago, the English department of the Abraham Lincoln High School undertook a survey of the radio habits and attitudes of the student body. The feeling was general that here, in the radio, was a force of vast potentialities if only of a supplementary nature. The part that it played in the lives of our students, the extent to which it functioned, and

the possibilities for a profitable utilization of radio's appeal in the interests of more vitalized teaching were some of the matters that concerned us.

The following survey is an attempt to answer some of these questions. In gathering the data we sampled all the eight grades with a radio questionnaire. The results follow.

NUMBER OF STUDENTS POLLED

	Boy	Girl	Total
1st Term	67	44	111
2nd Term	57	48	105
3rd Term	57	47	104
4th Term	58	52	110
5th Term	117	130	247
6th Term	57	43	100
7th Term	51	47	98
8th Term	61	52	113
Total	535	463	988

- I. Average time per day spent listening to the radio—2 hrs. 5 min.
- II. Average time per day spent on reading (not required)—1 hr. 20 min.
- III. Programs listened to.

(a) Cultural Programs

	% Listening for Each Grade								% Listening For All Grades	
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	Boys	Girls
1. Lux Theatre of the Air	70	82	86	91	80	70	77	73	80	92
2. March of Time	60	64	67	67	64	49	51	50	61	60
3. Professor Quiz	50	59	55	63	58	41	40	51	57	49
4. Boake Carter	43	38	19	34	40	31	39	38	56	39
5. Lowell Thomas	44	51	50	34	31	35	40	38	44	34
6. Cavalcade of America	44	39	34	31	33	25	27	26	35	32
7. Old Fashioned Spell. Bee	23	29	38	38	32	26	28	34	30	30
8. America's Town Meeting	12	33	38	36	20	32	44	46	29	32
9. Gabriel Heatter	31	32	34	16	26	14	9	17	26	21
10. Edwin C. Hill	29	26	19	19	14	13	19	16	21	20
11. Radio Playhouse	26	17	23	16	25	12	11	20	17	22
12. Science In the News	6	8	8	7	8	4	3	11	12	4
13. H. V. Kaltenborn	5	13	7	9	4	3	12	7	8	5/10
14. Alex. Woolcott	13	4	5	9	12	9	7	7	7	11
15. Forum Hour	5	4	4	2	5	10	2	7	5	4
16. University of Chicago Round Table	2	2	4	9/10	3	1	6	7	3	3
17. Capt. Gordon Herriot	13	1	0	9/10	4/10	1	15	11	2	5
18. Magic of Speech	1	3	3	10	10	2	4	7	2	6
19. Bryce Oliver	1	0	0	1	8/10	0	2	1	9/10	9/10

(b) Popular Programs

	Boys	% Listening For all grades %	Girls
1. Lone Ranger	35		38
2. Gang Busters	63		38
3. 20,000 Yrs. In Sing Sing	45		16
4. Easy Aces	19		24
5. The Guiding Light	1		22
6. Death Valley Days	39		21
7. Detective Mysteries	29		19
8. The O'Neills	7		17
9. One Man's Family	8		17
10. Junior G-Men	12		14
11. Billy and Betty	11		14
12. Pretty Kitty Kelly	7		12
13. Pepper Young's Family	5		11
14. Personal Column of Air	4		10
15. Amos 'n Andy	18		9
16. Follow the Moon	2		9
17. Jack Armstrong	10		9
18. Lum and Abner	11		8
19. Ma and Pa	7		7
20. Ma Perkins	3		7
21. Hope Alden's Romance	1		6
22. Molly of the Movies	5		5
23. Uncle Ezra	7		5
24. Little Orphan Annie	3		4
25. Wilderness Road	8		4
26. Aunt Jenny's Life Stories	1		4
27. Martha Deane's Program	7/10		4
28. Way Down East	1		4
29. The Guiding Light	1		4
30. Story of Mary Martin	7/10		3
31. Dog Heroes	6		2
32. Allie Lowe Miles	3		2
33. Uncle Don	2		2
34. Young Hickory	1/2		2
35. Adventures of Dari Dan	2		2
36. Junior Nurse Corp.	1/10		2
37. Don Winslow of the Navy	4		1
38. Johnson Family	7/10		1/10
39. The Old Homestead	9/10		

IV. The effect of radio on class-work.

	% finding radio helpful in school work	% finding it of no help in school work
	90	9
1st Term	73	26
2nd Term	76	23
3rd Term	71	29
4th Term	75	24
5th Term	69	31
6th Term	79	21
7th Term	82	17
8th Term		

V. Have any of your teachers ever given you homework assignments which required your listening to some radio program?

Term	% Assigned to Programs	% Not assigned to Programs
		48
1st Term	51	63
2nd Term	36	47
3rd Term	52	48
4th Term	51	63
5th Term	36	47
6th Term	52	8
7th Term	91	3
8th Term	96	

VI. Programs Assigned by Teachers

	No. of Students
1. America's Town Meeting of the Air	314
2. March of Time	34
3. News	22
4. French Programs	22
5. Classical Music	20
6. Lowell Thomas	16
7. Boake Carter	14
8. Forum	10
9. Cavalcade of America	9

VII. Did you find this kind of assignment:

1. More interesting than ordinary assignment	64%
2. Less interesting	25%
3. Made no difference	10%

VIII. Has any radio program you have listened to or now listen to affected you in any of the following ways:

- 24% a. I felt I would like to read something which was similar in content to the radio program.
- 16% b. I read something similar in content to the program.
- 60% c. Not affected at all.

Recognizing the treacherous nature of the questionnaire, we took every precaution to assure ourselves of the honesty of the reactions of the students. No names or grades appeared on the questionnaires. Only those who wanted to answer were invited to participate. The sampling represents a cross-section of the school population as accurately as we could determine it.

It will be noted that the questionnaire covers only those programs which might possibly be correlated with English. Hence the omission of all musical and so-called comedy programs. No attempt was made to determine the favorite programs of the students.

Some items which appeared in the original questionnaire have been omitted because of unfortunate and unlooked-for ambiguities in wording and interpretation, or because the results were so scattered as to be practically useless as indicators of any significant general tendency.

All the programs chosen appeared on the radio at times when all students could listen to them.

Interpretation of Results:

An examination of the data in I and II reveals graphically a fact

we had long suspected: our students listen to the radio more than they read for recreational purposes. The ratio is about two to one. It is a sad but hardly arguable fact that their listening is on a generally low plane. The programs which at present offer the most stimulating and the richest cultural and education material rank uniformly low.

The factors which determine the popularity of a program do not appear from these figures. It seems safe to assume, however, that these are significantly correlated with its entertainment value. If educational broadcasts are to capture a wide audience, it would appear that they must utilize the dramatic sensationalism of "The March of Time" or the "star" drawing-card of the Lux Program. Pure, unadulterated education, intellect in the raw, has comparatively little appeal.

Another significant fact appears in these results. There is no marked improvement of student taste or preference from grade I to VIII. This, of course, may be purely accidental. But the almost dead uniformity of taste in every instance would seem to militate against such a conclusion.

When we consider that the time interval here represented is that of prepubescence to puberty with all the manifold physical and psychological changes that this implies, these findings seem all the more strange.

We can only venture a guess. The lack of discrimination in radio fare can be laid directly at the door of the school system which has thus far done little or nothing to develop standards for judging the worth of radio programs. The critical faculty has received even less nurture from radio sponsors.

One does not develop discrimination in a vacuum, nor does there appear to be any startling carry-over from the laborious attempts we make at inculcating a love of the good, the true, and the beautiful in our literature classes.

The responses to item IV are heartening, to say the least. Comparatively few of our students are victimized by the gross sentimentality and obvious clap-trap here represented. They seem, on the contrary, to have a healthy sense of reality and do not find the need for this kind of escape.

Items VI and VII disclose the interesting fact that students find the radio an aid in their daily work although when asked to indicate the ways in which they were helped, they were exceedingly vague and discursive. (A check list provided at this point might have yielded fruitful data. Unfortunately,

one was not included in the questionnaire.)

Another very hopeful sign for teachers may be found in VIII where 64% of the students indicated their preference for the kind of assignment which involved listening to radio programs.

The responses to IX confirm our most dismal suppositions. Thus far, at least, radio seems to have contributed little of importance to developing, guiding, or enriching students' outside reading. A few scattered and inconclusive studies would seem to indicate that radio here has great possibilities. As yet, these are far from established. The movies, in this regard, have proved far more helpful than the radio. The answer lies probably in the greater and sensory vividness inherent in that medium. Various studies and librarians' reports bear testimony to the positively beneficial effects that the showing of a motion picture exerts on the reading of students. Radio has yet to prove its usefulness here.

These results, however fragmentary, pose a problem which cannot be dodged. For good or evil, radio is here to stay as a permanent and popular extension of man's conquest of his environment. That it plays a vital role in the lives of our students can hardly be denied. What then is our duty? There can be only one defensible answer. We must somehow harness the interests our stu-

dents find in radio for our own purposes. Radio is an inseparable part of their existence and must be brought into the curriculum somehow. Failure to do this is to neglect an area of pupil experience that plays a significant role in the pupil's life. It means, in short, depriving ourselves of means of increasing the richness and reality of teaching and learning.

There is much that we can attempt even at this early stage. Through class discussions, we can develop standards for judging radio programs as to content, organization, and so forth. This sort of discussion, as has been suggested elsewhere, need not begin and end with radio programs per se. It might profitably extend to a study of broadcasting, script-writing, the giving of radio dramas in the school.

But even if such ambitious programs do not seem feasible or profitable, some further and more obvious suggestions are at our disposal:

1. Comparison of news commentators as to diction, delivery, point of view. The place and function of the commentator is legitimate and vital matter for the English and social studies class.
2. Comparison of current events as treated by radio, newsreel and newspaper. A provocative and illuminating study is possible here into various

techniques for moulding and directing public opinion.

3. Letters to radio stations commenting on programs, followed by careful listening to see if these comments have any effect on station or sponsor policy.
4. Advertising on the radio.
5. Discussion of who controls and who should control radio and for what purposes.
6. Discussion of good speech as revealed on the radio.
7. Comparison of radio in a democracy and in a dictatorship. This casts into dramatic relief the conflicting ideologies and focalizes for the student the vast social significance of the radio. In these days, much can be accomplished in this way to sharpen the students' sense of social issues and the subtle fashion in which it comes home to him when he innocently turns the dial of his radio set. It will certainly make him a much wrier listener.
8. Propaganda on the radio.

The possibilities for making our students alive and intelligent listeners are virtually limitless, and, when we recognize the almost universal pervasiveness of radio, our obligation becomes clear and inescapable. We can, of course,

wait for someone to hand us a ready made program of radio activities. Such a project is under way, under the guidance of Mr. Herzberg of the National Council of Teachers of English. But there is no need to wait. Here, at hand, everyday is fresh and palpitant raw material crying to be converted into the stuff that makes for alert and meaningful living. Life moves too rapidly for us to wait until all the evidence is in, until every exigency has been provided for, until every period has been planned for us. While we wait and hope, another and another

generation has passed through our hands uninstructed in and unprepared to meet the ineluctable realities. For the largest number, graduation from high school means the end of formal, systematic education, the end of quiet rational consideration of problems and solutions, of obligations and conduct. To them, we must give all that we possess to enable them to live with intelligence, dignity, sanity, and joy the life that lies before them.

A. H. LASS.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

OF THE PUPIL, BY THE PUPIL, FOR THE PUPIL

The week before Regents is apt to be contemplated with unusually thoughtful expressions by most teachers. These teachers are divided into two groups—those who teach Regents classes and those who do not. In the first group, this thoughtful expression is sometimes augmented by a sense of futility at the task of cramming vast amounts of knowledge into students in order to enable them to pass the State Examinations. In the second group, the thoughtfulness is often dominated by a sense of helplessness and honest bewilderment arising from a situation in which students are expected to sit in class, pay attention, do homework and even take exams at a time when they are

fully aware that their final grades have been entered and recorded. Try as hard as you can to keep it concealed, it is of no avail. The secret grape-vine spreads the message to all: "Final Marks are in."

Of the two groups mentioned above (and of course, a teacher often finds himself a member of both) I feel that the teacher of Non-Regents classes has the more acute problem. For, the ever-nearing Regents exams are in themselves a driving force and a stimulus to concentrated effort and study on the part of the pupils. However, there is no actual, material goal toward which to strive in the Non-Regents groups after the final marks are in. It is to a discussion of a

program of activity in these groups that the remainder of this article is devoted.

For a number of terms, the writer has tried various means in an endeavor to maintain the same high level of interest and attention of the students until the last calendar day of regular classes. However, an entirely satisfactory method of doing so was at no time achieved. About three years ago, the writer adopted the policy of permitting the students to conduct the classes the last day of regular classes. Two or three volunteers took upon themselves the task of planning a program for that day. The results of this experiment were so worth while that the following term the number of pupil-directed days was increased to three. Finally, with the permission of the Chairman of the Biology Department, a Student's Week was inaugurated in all the writer's Non-Regents classes during the Spring Term of 1937. The work was planned so that the course of study would be completed in time to allow the full week before Regents for pupil activities exclusively. Although applied to the field of Biology, a similar program may undoubtedly be carried out in most subjects.

The results of Students Week were so splendid, so interesting and were received with so much enthusiasm by the student body that a similar plan was used for the term completed in January with

equally excellent results. It is important to remember that this program was not carried out in classes of superior students, but with average groups containing the usual proportions of good, bad, and mediocre pupils. It is my intention in the following discussion (1) to outline the procedure used in planning a program of this type (2) to enumerate various types of programs presented and where possible to present a brief example and (3) to present some general observations on the subject.

1. PROCEDURE

About three weeks before the week of Regents, students were informed that the work of the term would be completed within the next two weeks. It was further explained that the program for this last week would be planned, directed, and executed by the students themselves.

The news was received by the classes with a mixture of enthusiasm tempered by skepticism. It was necessary to go from the abstract to the concrete and to give definite ideas to the class on the type of work that could be done. The instructor mentioned the possibility of patterning one period's work after that of Prof. Quiz on the radio or of presenting a March of Science—and went on to describe how such programs could be arranged for classroom presentation. These suggestions

brought about instant response from the class. From all parts of the room eager hands and voices were raised. "We could have Spelling Bees." "Let's have plays." "How about dramatizing great events in Biology?" Once the ideas started, they kept piling up one after another. A list was put on the blackboard summarizing the various suggestions.

The students were to observe only one limitation in planning programs. Everything was to be directly related to and a part of the subject studied—Biology. Topics were not necessarily to be confined to those taken up during the term but could include anything at all in the field of Biology. The next step was to organize a Planning or Program Committee for each class. The students were given to understand that each member of the Committee would be in charge of the program for a full period and could choose any form of presentation for his period. Further, every student in the class was at the disposal of this committee and could be selected for participation in games, plays or other events by the student-chairman in charge of that particular day's program. Strangely enough, when volunteers for this committee were requested there were just as many mediocre students eager to take part as there were good ones. And all this, in the face of an emphatic warning that each member of the

committee would have extra work to do and would have to stay in after school or come before school at least three times.

Once the Program Committee had been selected, the next step was to have the members decide on what each planned to do. Two days were allowed for decisions to be made. After discussing the matter among themselves, each committee submitted a list of dates and events to the instructor for his approval. A type-written schedule of events was made out and read to the class, then posted on the Bulletin Board. The respective committee members then began to plan in detail their own individual programs. In all cases, short confabs were held between individual members of the committees and the instructor as to suitability of material, amount of material necessary and other pertinent details. Incidentally, these confabs took but a few minutes and were carried on mostly before the period began or after it ended. In those instances where plays or dramatized programs were to be presented, students wrote original scripts, selected their actors in advance, made appointments for rehearsals, stayed in after school or came before school to take part in these rehearsals. The instructor made it his business to be present during at least one rehearsal of each program. The time spent watching these rehearsals together with the

short conferences mentioned above did not occupy more than six full periods and constituted almost all of the additional work necessary on the instructor's part.

2. TYPES OF PROGRAMS

A. BEES of various kinds. A great variety of these were presented. Some of the programs are described below.

1. QUESTION BEES. The old fashioned type wherein the class is divided into two teams and eliminations take place until a winner remains.
2. PROFESSOR QUIZ. The Professor asks for volunteers or selects five or six members of the class as contestants. The Professor has previously prepared a number of questions on individual sheets of paper which are put into a box or hat. Each contestant selects a question and hands it to the Professor who reads it aloud. Each answer is rated and the ratings are tabulated on the blackboard. After a definite number of rounds, a winner is selected on the basis of points received.
3. BASEBALL BEES. Questions made up on separate sheets of paper and awarded a base value of 1st, 2nd, 3rd base or home run on the

basis of difficulty. This base value appears on each slip of paper above the question. Two teams of nine each are chosen by captains selected by the student-chairman in charge of the program. A diamond is marked off on the blackboard and a scorekeeper is appointed. Each team has a chance to strike out three times before the side is retired. A strike out, of course, results when a person at bat fails to answer a question correctly. It is necessary for the instructor to appoint himself as the Judge Landis or Supreme Arbiter of the game in order to prevent too much friction and argument over disputed questions and answers.

4. FOOTBALL BEES. Teams are chosen and an imaginary football field is ruled off on the blackboard. Slips of paper bear questions as above but with football values instead of baseball values. In both this type of Bee and the baseball, added complications may be made part of the game at the discretion of the instructor.

5. SPELLING BEES. Confined entirely to the spelling of biological terms.

Every one of these Bees serves as an excellent method of review and drill in subject matter. The same students who respond eagerly under the stimuli of competition and exhibition would ordinarily become slightly bored and lose interest in the usual form of drill. It is really extraordinary to see the keen spirit with which students enter into these Bees and to listen to the fierce discussions which rage over disputed questions and answers.

B. PLAYS.

It is a constant and evergrowing source of astonishment to watch students take the factual content of Biology and build really interesting, live sketches about them. A brief summary of one of these sketches will suffice.

The Digestive System Goes on Strike. A sketch which portrays the dream of a little boy who has gone to sleep with a bad stomachache. In his dream, he sees and hears the various organs of his digestive system arguing among themselves. They are discussing the advisability of calling a strike against their employer. The organs cite their grievances, such as the irregular hours they are forced to work, the fact that they have hardly a moment to themselves because their boss is always eating and drinking, the soggy, mushy sweets and pastries they always receive, and

the lack of good substantial nutrients that they need so badly and should receive. The functions of the various organs and the work of the enzymes are brought out vividly in the dialogue, which abounds in humorous situations. The play ends with the awakening of the boy just as a strike is about to be called. He cries out that he is ready to agree with the demands of his workers.

The discussion which followed the presentation of this play showed very definitely that it had added to the knowledge of the pupils.

C. MARCH OF SCIENCE.

This form of activity was performed in two ways. In one of these, groups of students selected certain topics and presented them in the form of radio broadcasts. Each student read his script for an interval of four or five minutes and was in turn followed by other students who went through the same procedure. Each speech showed developments or advances in Biological Science over the preceding one.

The other method of presenting this program was in the form of a play. The actors by their dialogue and actions demonstrated the crude surgery of the past. The barber at work in his shop is called to operate on a patient. Dropping his work and leaving his customer all in a lather, our

barber grabs his scissors and razor and rushes to the doctor's office. The poor patient complains of terrible pains in the region of his heart. A table is pulled out and the sufferer deposited upon it. There, under the instructions of the venerable physician who does not deign to finger the body of the patient but, instead sits back comfortably reading directions from a textbook, the barber plunges into his work. The lack of antiseptics, anesthesia, and proper instruments as well as the ignorance of the medical profession as to the actual anatomical structure of the human body are revealed.

In contrast with this very crude form of surgery was shown the method of surgery of today. This modern method is brought out by word descriptions, photographs and pictures, and surgical instruments which were brought in by a lad whose uncle is a surgeon.

D. JURY TRIALS.

A suitable subject is chosen and presented in regular courtroom fashion with the class sitting as jury. A defense attorney, prosecuting attorney, plaintiff, defendant, witnesses and court clerk are chosen and parts are memorized by the chief characters.

The State vs. Dr. Jones. Dr. Jones is a prominent physician who has been in practice for many years and has at the same time carried on extensive research work on a certain serum

designed to combat a fatal type of blood disease. After many years, he has succeeded in perfecting a serum which is very successful in combating this blood disease in lower animals. However, this fluid has never been tried on a human being. One day, Dr. Jones is called to the bedside of a patient who has been pronounced beyond aid by other physicians. Our doctor finds that the invalid is afflicted with the disease for which he has perfected a serum. The patient's life seems to be ebbing out and in a desperate attempt to save a life, the doctor injects some of his serum into the sick person. The patient dies and the widow of the deceased demands justice and damages from the physician, who, she claims, killed her husband. Attorney for the defense, in presenting his case, cited many instances wherein great scientific discoveries had been made possible through experimentation on lower animals and subsequent application to human beings. The case was so fascinating and lent itself so well to intelligent and thoughtful discussion that two full periods were required to complete the case.

E. CHARADES OR PUZZLE PICTURES.

This form of activity is presented in three ways:

1. The student-chairman calls up the students during the

period (or instructs them in advance) and instructs them to assume certain poses or positions or to perform various actions. The rest of the class attempts to guess the biological process or structure shown.

2. The modernized version of these charades is based on the picture puzzles which play so important a part in the advertising campaigns of some commercial concerns. Simple sketches are outlined rapidly on the board and the class attempts to arrive at the correct name or term represented by the sketch.
3. In a number of cases, students brought into class elaborate drawings on large sheets of paper and held these up to the view of the class.

In all cases, when the correct answer was given, an explanation of the method used in arriving at the answer was also forthcoming from the student. This type of activity is not only a test of biological knowledge, but also a test of perception and the ability to relate facts.

F. DO YOU WANT TO BE AN ACTOR?

Programs of this sort differ from plays in two respects. First, no rehearsals are held in advance and secondly, in almost every case the script was copied from a bio-

logical play, motion picture or radio drama. Thus, excerpts from "Men in White" and "Life of Pasteur" were used as source materials. In other cases, biographies were dramatized and used in the form of a play. The writer feels that the students who witnessed these programs will remember the incidents shown and the points brought out for a much longer time than a good many facts learned in the classroom during the course of the term.

G. AMATEUR TEACHING.

There are always students who want "to be the teacher." For these, there is no activity which is received with greater enthusiasm than that of amateur teaching. Topics are chosen in advance by the students after consultation with the instructor. The students then proceed to draw up regular lesson plans augmented in the great majority of cases by a great deal of information garnered from sources other than the regular textbook. It is interesting indeed to note the keenness of attention displayed and the eagerness with which this type of lesson is greeted by the class.

H. DEBATES.

There is nothing unusual about debates. Topics of biological interest are chosen and two teams are either selected or volunteer to present opposite sides of the question. The class is the judge

of the winning team. An excellent topic that was debated last term and one in which much heated discussion was evoked was entitled "Should Biology be a Required Subject?"

I. HAT TALKS.

A number of slips of paper bearing various biological topics are placed in a hat. A student draws a slip out of the hat and is then required to talk a definite length of time upon the subject printed on the slip. A point score is awarded to each contestant on the basis of accuracy of information and content. This program was presented in two ways. In one, a small number of students was selected and they alone took part in the Hat Talks. Several rounds were held and at the end of the final round, the person receiving the highest score won. In the second method of presentation, the entire class took part.

J. CROSS WORD PUZZLES.

These puzzles are a most effective form of review and an equally effective stimulus to thought. Although the presentation of this type of program is not so dramatic as some of the others, it is received most eagerly by the students and arouses a strong competitive spirit among them. The work involved in the preparation of a cross word puzzle is quite difficult and arduous as anyone with experience in this field can

testify. This difficulty is by no means lessened by the limitation that all terms and definitions used must be of a biological nature. However, it has been found necessary to permit the inclusion of a few non-biological terms in order to fill in odd corners and crevices in some of the more lengthy puzzles. Most of the puzzles presented contained an average of fifty definitions but one masterpiece contained 175 definitions. The lad who composed this puzzle admitted that he had spent at least 15 hours on it and added that he had gathered more information about Biology from his task than he had acquired in a good many weeks spent in his class. These puzzles may be presented in three ways:

1. A stencil of the puzzle may be cut and mimeographed. Individual sheets are then distributed to the members of the class. The first one to hand in a correct solution wins. The class is then shown the correct answers and the various terms reviewed.
2. The puzzle may be drawn on a large sheet of cardboard and held up to the view of the class. A definition is read off and the first student to guess the correct word is awarded a certain number of points. The student who has the greatest

number of points at the end of the game wins.

3. The student rules the puzzle on the blackboard. This may be done during class or during a free period before class.

The above examples of various types of programs that are possible of presentation could be increased by many others. However, the purpose of this article is served if it will but indicate to teachers of all subjects that it is possible to maintain a high sustained interest in classwork to the very last day of the term. Further, the types of programs possible are so varied and so capable of pupil-presentation that it becomes a positive pleasure for all concerned as well as a source of knowledge.

3. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

It is no difficult task for an individual to become enthusiastic over his own particular program. In this case however, various factors combined to confirm this writer's belief in the type of work described.

The enthusiasm of the students manifested itself in many ways. Not only were they eager to stay in after school and to come before school for rehearsals, but also to spend hours at home and in the library seeking information around which to build their programs. Students who were of-

ficially excused from classes for one reason or another, appeared day after day in their regular places in the Biology class in order to listen or take part in the day's program. Students from other classes constantly sought permission to visit during their study or free periods in order to watch the activities. Several students frankly confessed that they would have been "ill" for a few days during the week before Regents and would have found it necessary to stay home—but for Student's Week.

A point well worth repetition is one that concerns the eagerness with which all kinds of students volunteered to join this work. There seemed to be little relation between success in studies and ability to take part in students' programs. Some of the best plays and some of the most animated and interesting discussions were provided by mediocre students.

It is no wonder that programs of this type kindle the interest and enthusiasm of boys and girls. It is not the ordinary routine of school work. The boundaries which often exist between the school and the outside world are eliminated to a large extent. The student is presented with a task or situation similar to one he might encounter outside. It is then up to him to gather information from whatever sources available, to select, discard and revise, to polish this information in such manner

that will make it interesting and attractive to his listeners. The lines that separate individual subjects are also cut across in the student's eager pursuit of information and data. English, Art, His-

tory and the Sciences join hands in order to supply the settings and materials for the student's activity in Biology.

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THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF A TEXTILE MUSEUM IN A SCHOOL

During the past generation, in this country at least, there has been an extraordinary development of interest in the concrete and practical sides of education. This interest arose gradually after educators and business men of the country had examined the splendid exhibits at the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876 and at the Columbia Exposition at Chicago in 1892.

The wonderful growth of the industrial world and of technical education of different nations was expressed at the expositions, not on charts or printed sheets, but in concrete examples of various products.

It was noticed that the most progressive nations, like England, France and Germany, had developed through the application of sciences to industries and had technical schools and museums for the instruction and education of the people. In fact, museums and technical courses have existed for many years in every city and village of importance in Europe.

Oriental nations like China and Egypt, held to purely literary education, had not developed technical schools and museums to the same degree. In fact, it was noticed that the progressiveness of nations was due to technical schools and museums.

Then again, the new psychology shows that most people are motor- and not abstract-minded and can only obtain real, genuine knowledge, particularly of a technical character, from concrete experiences and illustrations, and not from the printed page of the book. Therefore, any attempt to educate the masses must be through the concrete and the practical in education, which means that every school should, in order to be effective, provide concrete and practical education, which can only be done to best advantage by objective teaching. This form of teaching involves a collection of objectives to see at all times and also a collection of objects to handle and study. The place for the objects is called a museum.

The word "museum", in its original sense, was applied to any place dedicated to learning and in Europe the name is still applied to institutions of music, liberal arts, and sciences of the most diversified character. But in England and in this country it is not applied to libraries, galleries or conservatories.

The word "museum," applied in its modern sense, means a houseful of ideas arranged with the strictest attention to system and naturally includes (1) collection and preservation of natural and artificial objects of all kinds, properly labelled, classified and arranged to illustrate departments of knowledge; and (2) utilizing these objects for the education of the young and for the enlightenment of the people. A museum is not to entertain but to educate.

This new interest in the concrete and practical has created new varieties of schools and courses such as college grade technical, secondary technical and vocational schools and technical and vocational courses in the existing academic schools. These new courses and new schools meant not only new subject matter, but also new methods and devices for teaching. The most important device was the objective method of teaching through exhibits.

Out of the educational principle that objective teaching is absolutely necessary came the development of the school museum—a collec-

tion of the exhibits for objective teaching on every possible occasion. The museum is the greatest exponent of objective teaching—specimens, charts, lanterns, moving pictures.

That is, bring the child, or student, in contact on every possible occasion with the real objects and not with the verbal description of the thing or by means of the information from the printed page. The picture is better than the printed page, but the mind at work on the concrete thing that is being studied is far more effective than the picture, illustration, talk, or description from the book.

By studying the real things we train the students' sense, which, in turn, trains the memory. Let the child study the exhibit of cotton, wool or silk by feeling the different samples and noting the different characteristics; then he can describe minutely and will remember the differences in the feel and the metallic lustre of rayon, pearly lustre of silk, depth of lustre in wool and the dullness of cotton. These fine distinctions can only be observed and remembered by actually seeing the real, concrete samples of rayon, silk, wool and cotton.

It is true that some people can acquire knowledge from books. This ability requires, in addition to a certain amount of education, mental determination and physical effort on the part of the reader or student. This implies first the

interest and desire to know and then the ability to seek the information in books. While this is a very valuable form of education for those who have the power and can profit by this form of instruction, most of us are not constituted by nature to be able to use this method. Most of us are intensely practical or concrete-minded. Note the expression on a child's face when shown the actual thing, then when reading from the page of the book.

Objective teaching by specimens from the museum takes the visitor, slow or concrete-minded, and attracts his attention by an attractive display and by explanatory labels and stimulates him to read.

Objective thinking sharpens the senses, stimulates the intelligence, broadens the sympathies and multiplies the interests. Every device of teaching from the concrete and practical is a gain towards the realization of two strong desires: (1) desire for sound knowledge, not knowledge of the myth and fable, but knowledge of the real thing, the fact and the truth; and (2) the intense desire to be of service to mankind.

A museum in the school will, in the near future, become as invaluable to the teaching facilities as the library. The museum stands side by side with the library as a source of higher culture. The museum is to the library what the illustrations are to the book.

On the first floor of the new

Textile High School building, at 351 West 18th Street, Manhattan, there are two museums and exhibit rooms, 25' x 55' each. One of these is a museum and research room of wearing apparel; the other a museum and research room of fabrics. These museums contain samples of all fabrics and literature on wearing apparel and fabrics. No other institution in the City of New York has a complete set of fabrics, both dress and decorative, carefully mounted and classified, and so arranged that anyone can examine a definite fabric with a trade name. It is also possible for one who has a sample of fabric, but does not know the trade, to determine the trade name by determining the composition, weave, and finish. In other words, if one has a cotton fabric but does not know the trade name, he can determine (a) the composition, (b) the weave, (c) then finish, and then look into the classified list of fabrics by composition, weave, and finish, for the fabric with the specification.

Trade organizations, textile merchants and manufacturers have presented to the museum fabrics of all kinds and all literature on the subject of textiles and wearing apparel. These museums are for reference and are easily accessible to the trade and to the general public, a separate entrance having been provided for this purpose.

It is the aim of the school to supply technical information to the

trade and to provide for the trade and for the designers an opportunity for information and inspiration in textiles and for new ideas and style tendencies.

HELPING PUPILS FIND THEMSELVES

The grade adviser is one of the most important agents of adjustment in high school organization. The fact is, the function of grade advising and of education is fundamentally one and the same. All who come into direct contact with students and those who determine the policies are just as much, if not more so, grade advisers as those who are especially dubbed with that title.

The grade advisers have to work with the problems arising in the environment of the class rooms and must work within the boundaries of the organization set up by the administration. They are limited, therefore, as to whom they may adjust and as to what adjustments may be made.

Reducing the function of the grade adviser to the one word "adjustment" is deceiving. It simplifies a matter that is probably the most complex imaginable. Ponder a moment over the connotation of the word "adjustment" and study all of its implications and you will understand why in so many cases tasks are set up that are so often impossible of solution.

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If adjustments are to be proper, consideration must be given the psychological, social, economic, physiological, and pedagogical problems all of which may be involved in the particular case at hand. We must bear in mind that all behavior is motivated by certain inter-psychic involvements which have their origin in the constitutional endowments and early training of the child.

The concept of adjustment may be divided into the following categories for further analysis:

1. adjustment of the grade adviser to the pupil
2. adjustment of the teacher to the pupil
3. adjustment of the pupil to the curriculum
4. adjustment of the curriculum to the pupil
5. adjustment of the pupil to society and future life

The grade adviser has a decided advantage over the class room teacher in the matter of adjustment. He sees the pupil as an individual and is in a much better position to gain the pupil's confidence. This is so essential if anything worthwhile is to be ac-

complished. He is able to consider the individual not only as a student but as one who lives in a given social and economic environment; as one who has certain likes and dislikes; as one who has innate tendencies to do right or wrong. The grade adviser can take the Gestalt point of view which the recitation teacher cannot very often do.

The pupil may come to us voluntarily, on the advice of the class room teacher, or in response to the request of the adviser. He or she may be in to see us for discipline or for scholarship. The student may want counsel on how to plan a course of study or to indicate lack of interest in a particular subject. A clash of personalities between the teacher and student may have developed. A child coming to us may be superior scholastically and want advice as to college preparation, scholarships, and extra-curricular activities. Many pupils tell us of their health and financial problems.

My experience has been, however, that after the first hectic weeks of the term, when program technicalities are to the fore, not enough students are sent by the subject teachers and still fewer pupils venture to avail themselves voluntarily of our service. This means that we have to wait until we see marks before any adjustment can be made. Marks are not always the best criteria of the need for adjustment. The pupil

may be doing passable work yet need advice and adjustment because he is not working to capacity. My feeling has always been that even the inception of adjustment is too long in materializing principally because advisers do not know of the need for it.

The longer the individual is permitted to remain in the mal-adjusted state the deeper will be the injury to his attitudes and inhibitions and the more difficult the process of adjustment. The day is past when the teacher is considered competent for handling all problems himself. The teacher who handles all problems is just as inefficient as the policeman who issues no summonses. The class room instructor cannot be expected to solve all problems. Lack of time, devices, techniques, and information all make it essential that the teacher refer many cases to more specialized individuals or groups.

I believe that, in view of the variety of reasons why pupils may be in to see us, the first and most important task of the grade adviser is that of adjusting himself to the pupil. Six students may be interviewed in quick succession. Each may have an entirely different problem. Each may be of a different temperament. Each problem may require a different solution. You may need to smile for one and check another. Some may need vigorous treatment, others consolation

and sympathy. If the grade adviser does not adjust his temperament to the varied moods and problems, such irreparable damage might be done as to make all other further efforts at adjustment futile.

The premise upon which the grade adviser bases adjustments is that we cannot know "how" until we know "why." We must know as much as possible about

the pupil before we can proceed with any remedial work. In order that I may get a better perspective of the individual, his background, problems, home environment, study habits and interests, I have him fill out the following questionnaire. Note that the form is designed especially for students who have been failing subjects—the group which constitutes the largest part of our task.

NAME	SECTION	DATE OF BIRTH
1. I am taking the following major subjects: (Underline those you are passing)		
2. Check reasons or reason why you believe you are failing other major subjects:		
1. Work is too difficult	6. Get no encouragement at home	
2. I don't like the subjects	7. Have been ill	
3. Don't like the teachers	8. Been absent too much	
4. Don't like school	9. State any other reason.....	
5. Haven't been doing my work		
3. The subject I like best in high school is.....		
4. The subject I like least in high school is.....		
5. I (do, don't) like to answer questions in class.		
6. I make out better in (tests, classwork).		
7. I've been absent.....days this term.		
8. I've been absent because.....		
9. I (do, do not) have trouble (hearing, seeing) in class.		
10. Within the last year I (have, have not) been seriously ill.		
11. My hobby is.....		
12. I tried out for.....teams and (did, didn't) make them.		
13. I have participated or am participating in the following school clubs or activities:		
14. I would like to try out for the following activities:		
15. When I get home from school I usually.....		
1. Play	4. Run errands	7. Do nothing
2. Read	5. Work	8. State anything else:
3. Help in the house	6. Do my homework	
16. I pal around with (1, 2, 3, 4) friends.		
17. My friends: 1. work; 2. go to school; 3. do nothing.		
18. I go to the movies (0, 1, 2, 3, 4) or more times a week.		
19. I am allowed out (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, more) nights a week.		
20. I have.....brothers and.....sisters.		
21. Their ages are.....		
22.brothers and sisters have completed high school.		
23. We get the (News, Journal, Press, Times, Tribune, Post, mention any other.....) newspaper at home.		
24. I read the 1. funnies; 2. news; 3. sports; 4. editorials.		
25. On the average I spend.....minutes on homework.		
26. Within the last month I have read.....(title) book.		

NAME

SECTION

DATE OF BIRTH

27. I (have, have not) a quiet room in which to study.
 28. I (do, do not) get assistance at home.
 29. I usually go to bed at—1. 8 o'clock 2. 9 o'clock 3. 10 o'clock 4. 11 o'clock
 5. later than 11.
 30. My father's occupation is.....
 31. My mother's occupation is.....
 32. I am staying in high school.....
 1. Until I get a job 5. Because my friends are in school
 2. Until I am 18 years old 6. Because I like some of the subjects
 3. Because I want to graduate 7. State any other reason:
 4. My parents want me to graduate
 33. After graduation I plan to—
 1. Go to work 3. Stay at home 5. State anything else:
 2. Go to college 4. Get married
 34. I shall look for a job as a.....
 35. My parents (do, do not) see my report card.
 36. My parents (do, do not) inquire about my school work.
 37. My parents (have, have not) visited school.
 38. If I had my wish I (would, would not) leave school now.
 39. I believe my school work would be improved if:

Having applied this questionnaire to first year pupils, I have found that 10% of the pupils interviewed attributed their failure in scholarship to an apparent clash of student-teacher attitudes. This is significant for such lack of adjustment is certain to reflect in the scholastic achievements of these students. Adjustments in these cases are made by transferring the students to another subject teacher with the consent of both teachers involved.

About 15% of the pupils failing in two or more subjects claimed that the work was too difficult, 29% admitted that they had not been doing their work, and 30% did not like the subjects or school in general. Therefore, 74% of the failures were due to the maladjustment of the pupil to the curriculum or the curriculum to

the pupil. The possible adjustments that may be made in these cases include.

1. A special program if the pupil has been assigned a task beyond his mental capacities.
2. A changed course of study.
3. Transfer to a vocational school with the consent of the parents.
4. Suggest to parents that pupil be taken out of school.
5. Ask parents to check on study habits at home.
6. Check habits of pupil in school.
7. Interest pupils in extra-curricular activities and the library. The last although it might appear to be the most general, has in many cases been the most effective. By stimulating interest in

school through extra-curricular activities we can often transfer that interest to the everyday school work.

The last group, that which involves the adjustment of pupils to society and future life, is probably the most serious. The underlying causes for the existing maladjustments are so deeply rooted and complex that they are not readily discernible. Pupils who are different, those who cannot get along with others, those who are flagrant violators of school rules, the backward or withdrawing type—all must be adjusted to society and future life if they are to be happy and worthwhile citizens. This type of maladjustment can often be the fundamental cause for poor school work and it can be brought to light during the face to face interview between the adviser and the pupil.

The reasons for this maladjustment might not be so apparent to the subject teacher because the individual tends to lose his identity in the class room. These reasons become magnified when, during the interview, the grade adviser is especially looking for the "why" of the problem. The aid and advice of outside agencies are often sought to make the necessary adjustments of children in this group and in many cases the results obtained have been extremely worthwhile.

There is probably no more instructive and interesting way to

study the work of the grade adviser than to study some of the actual cases that have arisen. The following is a summary of the five cases that are more or less representative of those that come before us:

CASE I

Tony, age fifteen, of Italian parentage, entered high school with a good elementary school record. Although he was enrolled in the commercial course, he was in the special group permitted to take mathematics. His I. Q. was 100 or normal. Last term he did fairly well in all subjects except math. which he failed. He became a truant. This term he failed everything from the very beginning of the term. In an interview it was disclosed that this boy, attending school until five o'clock had to work from 6 p.m. to 2 a.m. each night in a vegetable store. His father was unemployed and his brother was on relief. Tony was well-mannered, likeable, and has given some thought to his future. He did not like the hours he had in school nor the subjects he was taking principally because he had fallen so far behind. He was mechanically inclined.

Adjustment: His school hours were changed so that his working hours are now 5 p.m. to 9 p.m. His course of study has been adjusted so that he occupies most

of his time with shop and printing in which classes he is warmly welcomed because of the good work he has been doing. The adjustment was made two months ago and the boy has not been absent since.

CASE 2

Martha, age fourteen, entered high school with a very good elementary school record. I. Q. 125, above normal. Registered in the special commercial section permitted to take math. Absent frequently during the first semester. Absence due to illness and truancy. Girl seemed underfed. In spite of her frequent absence, English teacher reported that she would have to pass the girl because her work was so much better than the other members of the class. Girl claimed that her reason for failure was that she did not like the subjects—Math and Science. I believed that the difficulty was in her home life. The girl was very reluctant to speak about it.

THE REAL OBJECTIVE OF HEALTH EDUCATION

Health Education has not as yet reached its final objective. Those who feel that increase in the size of muscles and increase of vitality are the real objectives of Health Education have a very narrow viewpoint. There is no doubt that exercises, athletics, and games will give increased vigor and vitality.

Adjustment: Arranged a special program for the girl so that she could have creative writing, home arts, and art, which she wanted. Also arranged for her to give me service. I hoped that through this I might gain her confidence. The girl reported for service twice then was absent for an extended period and finally transferred to another school.

All of the cases coming to the grade adviser, although at the moment seemingly insignificant, may be of vital importance to the individual involved. A careless decision, a slighting attitude, or a wrong attitude may be the difference between a happy, successful individual, a good citizen and a social charge. Dealing with human beings is a highly explosive proposition. The grade adviser must act accordingly in trying to perform his function of adjusting the individual to his current and future life.

HAROLD YOURMAN.

John Adams High School.

This is the great value when we consider utilitarian purposes only. There are, however, other phases of Health Education of greater value. In fact, actual physical development beyond a reasonable degree is not of any real value to the great mass of people. It has been proven that overaccentuation

in certain forms of exercise produces large and bulging muscles which are a detriment rather than an aid to the proper adjustment of the individual to society as a whole. There must be something else of more importance to aid a person to fit into society so that he as an individual and society as a whole may benefit.

Although we stress the fact that Health Education must not only consider physical development, but also the moral, mental, and social qualities, we find that in actual practice these qualities are not always given sufficient consideration. That adequate provision for the development of moral and social values has not been made is proved by the vast army of persons who do not and never will fit into the social fabric in a suitable manner.

Although Health Education must also take care of the physical defects as well as improving the physical condition of the individual, the control of the emotions is the prime object of Health Education. Without this control the entire work of the Health Education Department is a failure. Of what value is the fine muscular development, the coördination of mind and muscle, if the person who has this development is going to use these qualities to the detriment of society rather than for its good?

Right mental habits and control of the emotions will far outweigh in value the intensive mus-

cular development that has seemed to be the end and aim of Health Education. This statement is not to be taken as a condemnation of all physical exercise, but is to be understood as favoring a reasonable amount of exercises, athletics, and games, that will not develop the muscles to their fullest extent, but will give a nerve and muscular development sufficient for the needs of the individual. In addition they will produce moral and social attributes that will develop the character of the individual so that he will become a credit to society.

There is no doubt that, there is at the present time a greater need for the subjugation and control of the emotions than ever before. The youth of the nation make up the great mass of criminals of the present day. The development of this control is not always gained by the increase in the physical activities of the individual, but must sometimes be obtained by an actual decrease in the physical exercise.

There is no more suitable place for the study, training, and development of the emotional aspects of the individual than in the Health Education Department. In no other department can the teacher or instructor get closer to what the individual thinks or feels than here. It is here that the change from an antagonistic nature to one that is acceptable to guidance can be readily obtained by the proper encouragement, su-

pervision, and friendly advice of the instructor in charge.

The individual must adjust himself to society both for his own good and the good of society. No matter how he may improve physically, if his emotions are not under control, if he has a mistaken idea of authority, he will frequently become a menace to society and he himself, the greatest loser.

Group consciousness and the willingness of the individual to forego some individual gain for the benefit of the group is not as strong at present as might be desired. In order to obtain this desirable end, especially in those schools where the space for Health Education is greatly restricted, it may be necessary to curtail the actual amount of physical exercise so that one division may observe the play while the other division takes part in the sport. A rapid change makes the spectators the players, and those who have just been active become the observers or critics.

There is no doubt that recreation should constitute the greater part of the work in Health Education. There is an appeal in this type of activity that calisthenics does not have. Another reason why recreational activities should be used extensively is that they have a carry over value for future years.

As recreation may be divided into two parts, active recreation

and passive recreation, it follows that both these divisions must be given consideration, and those persons who act as spectators are really being trained in recreation. They learn to judge the finer points of play, which will have a carry over value and bring them pleasure and happiness in the future.

During these contests there is a highly developed rivalry and the ones not engaged in play are always about equally divided in their enthusiasm for one or the other of the teams participating. This is where the actual control of the emotions may be taught. No expressions of dislike or resentment are permitted. If such feelings should happen to exist they are kept under control. There is no better way of preparing persons for the actual struggle of life and good citizenship than in situations such as these.

The contests in these classes are under the direct supervision of the instructor in charge, who must be absolutely fair and unbiased in his decisions. With a continuance of such a system and program, with rotations and divisions, the change in many pupils, even those who might be considered behavior cases, will become very pronounced; the group spirit becomes really evident, the spirit of give and take grows, and other attributes such as honesty, fair dealing, generosity, courage, and self restraint are rapidly developed.

Health, mental health, must be given a great deal more consideration in the health program. Physical health will come with all the various types of exercises, but as competitive games give rise to marked emotions they should form the major part of Health Education program. They create an interest on the part of the participants which produces an exhilaration, and here is where the emotions come into play. In the hands of a skillful leader the various individuals are taught to control their emotions. The instructor must

be absolutely firm, but kindly, not harsh and aggressive.

As stated above many individuals in the class are not in action. Sometimes greater control of the emotions of those not participating is necessary than the control of those who are taking part in the game. Better citizens will be developed and greater good will come to society through this type of Health Education, even though physical development has not been carried to its highest point.

CHARLES J. CARPENTER.

Bryant High School.

CHORAL SPEAKING IN ACTION

The Twenty-second Annual Convention of the National Association of Teachers of Speech was held in New York City at the Hotel Pennsylvania on December 28th, 29th, and 30th. The Choral speaking section featured demonstrations of children from elementary and junior high schools in New York City. Mrs. Roberta K. Thomas, Assistant to Principal of Public School 171, Brooklyn, was chairman. Mr. Seymour S. Bauman of Public School 98, Bronx, and Extension Division, College of the City of New York, was discussion leader.

The first of the four demonstrations, presented by a third and fourth year group of forty-five children from Public School 5,

Brooklyn, was most interesting. This school is in an underprivileged neighborhood; the children stem from twelve nationalities that include American-Negro, Chinese, Filipino, German, Greek, Italian, Lithuanian, Polish, Puerto Rican, Russian-Jewish, Spanish and Ukrainian. These bi-lingual children, eight to twelve years of age, offered a delightful program of three selections: *The Owl and The Pussy-Cat* by Edward Lear; *The Night Wind* by Eugene Field; and *The Pied Piper of Hamelin* by Robert Browning. According to Mrs. Pauline Lederer, chorus director, the children had received two twenty-minute periods of instruction each week for four months prior to the demonstration.

The presentation of the abridged version of *The Pied Piper* culminated a program of correlated activities with the poem begun during the spring semester. The children had read the poem previously and had written and acted in a play based on it. This term, according to Mrs. Lederer, they chose it for choral speaking. Presented as a study in unison and part speaking rather than line-a-child work, because of the difference of the children, the selection evoked spirited rounds of applause and comments from the audience. The intense expressions of appreciation that appeared on the children's faces as they imparted the author's message revealed the extent to which poetry appreciation could be taught to children through this choral speaking technique, and how an interest in speech could be stimulated in children who come from homes where very little English is spoken.

The second group of selections was presented by a chorus of twenty-five seventh and eight year children from Public School 81, the Bronx. Mrs. Elizabeth Callahan who coached the group said that this work supplemented a speech program already started. Inaugurated in February 1937, a definite speech program brought phonetics, speech and voice drills, individual corrections, and oral composition to the four classes in the seventh and eight year department for forty minutes each week.

Choral speaking was introduced in the middle of October of this year. Ten minutes of this speech period is devoted to the recitation of jingles, nonsense rhymes, and various short selections through choric speech solely for enjoyment and the speech training resulting from this work. The group of boys and girls who had come to the hotel had volunteered to work up a program for this event. They had had approximately ten fifteen-minute rehearsals after school hours, three thirty-minute rehearsals during the regular school time, and one dress rehearsal before the school corps of seventeen teachers. The program included:

Pick-a-dilly (Patter), *The Smuggler's Son* (Line-a-group), *Hickory Dickory Dock* (Round and Counterpoint), *Bingo* (Solo and Refrain), *Lady Lindsay* (Antiphonal), *The Sands of Dee* (Group and Solo), *The Pledge Of Allegiance* (Solo and Groups).

The group worked for interpretation through rhythm, phrasing, timing for light flexible voices, and for good enunciation and speech which approximates that of the accepted standard. To this group, it seems that the artistic presentation of poetry through verse speaking is incidental at present. The end in view is to promote an appreciation and love of poetry and good speech through an emphasis on the elements of choral speaking resulting in an enhancement of mood and deepening

of significance through variety of tone color—an emotional approach. The rendering of *The Pledge* was a valiant and noteworthy attempt to vitalize a patriotic gesture which has become meaningless through daily thoughtless repetition.

Children from Junior High School 60, Manhattan, in two groups, one under the direction of Miss Blanche Nasi, Assistant Principal, and the other led by Mrs. Esther Farkas, illustrated the steps in the development of an artistic choral speaking suit. Miss Nasi's group of rapid-advance children used: *Hop-pity*, *The Sound of the Wind*, *Marching Song*, *Pater's Bath*, *Churning Charm*, *The Owl*, *Ferry Me Across the Water*, *Grasshopper Green* in their program. Their contributions were prefaced by remarks by Miss Nasi on "Objectives and Techniques of Choric Speaking at the Elementary High School Levels." Commenting on her group's work, Miss Nasi said that "The children have learned nothing of real literary merit. They are still in the practice stage. Simple rhymes and easy rhythms allow time for emphasis on precision of attack, the development of good voice and articulation, and the freeing of inhibitions. We do not say that this is a finished product; we do not profess to be experts. We are experimenting in a most interesting field of work." Mrs. Farkas' seventh-year group favoured the enthusiastic audience

with: *Witch in the Wind*, *The Runaway*, *Spin*, *Lassie*, *Spin*, *Come Down To Kew*, *Up-Hill*, *The Kitten's in the Dairy*, *The Prelude—Evangeline*. Two poems were offered under the direction of pupil-leaders without any teacher assistance. They were: *The House With Nobody In It*, and *Song for November*. The children worked hard and well in getting coöperation from their groups. *Autumn Mood*, a poem that the children had never seen before, was taught as a demonstration to show teachers how to begin this work.

During the discussion period, the differences between the concert recitation and choral speaking were convincingly developed. The discussion leader indicated that whereas the old concert recitation emphasized a repetition by rote, choral speaking stresses the re-creation of thought by an "independence within an interdependence" among the performers. The individual, then, is not submerged. The duties of a leader were enunciated and illustrated by the various types of directing used in the preceding renditions. Individual problems encountered by members of the audience were discussed and solutions offered. To avoid sing-song tonal patterns, it was suggested that groups concentrate on thought values. The audience was in unanimous accord with the discussion leader in the belief that every teacher of choral speaking should be well-grounded in a

knowledge of phonetics, oral interpretation principles, voice and diction techniques, and the various aspects of choral speaking pedagogy before he attempts to work with children. This is absolutely necessary if choral speaking is to outlive its early reputation as a 'fad,' and is to survive. Faith in the proved values of the activity and in its future in the speech and literary education of elemen-

tary school children was expressed by acclaim. The meeting adjourned after one hitherto sceptical person in the audience confessed to having been converted to an interest in the possibilities of the activity by the discussion and demonstrations.

SEYMOUR S. BAUMAN.

Herman Ridder Junior High School.

HIGH POINTS

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES

The work of the Physical Science Department can be greatly enhanced if the facilities of the library will keep up with the growing demand for books dealing with scientific subjects. There is no question but that a well-equipped science section would give pupils in science a great many advantages. Among these might be numbered the following:

The reading habits of the pupils would be improved, because the student has ready reference material in which he is emotionally interested. His study habits would show improvement because, here again, the book or books that he has "so wanted" are placed in his hands.

A good science library would provide for individual differences in students. The brighter pupils would have appropriate reference

material, while the poorer pupils would find books and magazines suitable to their mental levels.

The information given in the popular press concerning scientific developments would be better understood if the student could go to his library to look up references. Through his library he would obtain a vivid picture of the strides that science is making in his world.

With proper library facilities, the teachers of the sciences can make an appreciable and worthwhile contribution in correlating the work of the student with English. Many of the science teachers are convinced that regularly assigned outside reading, four or more books a term, as is done in English for supplementary reading reports, would make for much deeper interest on the part of the students.

The following experiment was

tried in a science department with only partially satisfying results because of the lack of books in the school's library.

1. Specific page references for certain topics were selected from a wide range of books. Mimeographed copies were supplied to the pupils.
2. Books were selected on the level of the pupils' reading abilities.
3. Whatever books were available in the school library were placed on a special side shelf.
4. Definite assignments were given to the pupils, and dates set for submitting reports.
5. The best reports were selected and the respective pupils asked to prepare illustrative demonstrations.
6. Reports were read in class demonstrations presented under the teacher's supervision.

There can be little doubt that pupils at all levels of understanding can benefit by such library work. One clear indication can be found in the fact that such a large percentage of our pupils purchase copies of the current science magazines of a popular nature. One finds pupils in the lower strata of the class browsing through scientific articles which ordinarily would seem beyond their mental level. Doesn't it seem too bad that

the school library cannot follow up this interest with additional material? With many of our students the initial contact with the school library comes when the teacher asks for some "outside" references. Disappointment follows when the student is unable to find any of the books or magazines from which to obtain this information.

We frequently discuss the matter of allowing for individual differences among pupils. However, it is generally considered as a good "talking point" with but little expectation of actually putting it into use in the city schools. One method of caring for superior students in science would involve assigning them tasks that are too difficult for the average pupil. Arrangement might be made for such pupils to carry out special library assignments during periods when the instructor is re-teaching a phase of work because of lack of pupil understanding. We must remember, however, that we cannot do this unless the books and magazines are made available!

These are but a few of numerous benefits that must result from an adequate library, suitably selected, and constructively used. The teachers of science should urge our budget makers to offer larger appropriations for the purchase of library books and magazines, as well as for the various expenses of repair and improvement that are inherent in the oper-

ation of library facilities commensurate with the educational possibilities involved.

A. H. DICK.

Grover Cleveland High School.

STICK-FIGURES AND THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

Our utilization of stick-figures should not be limited to literature periods, for there are a number of concepts in grammar that need well-planned explanation, even pictorial representation. Indeed, many of the concepts are considered too abstruse for the average high school youngster. Omission, or at best hasty and sketchy treatment, is the result. To be sure, there are many rules and formalized definitions that are useless to all but the grammarian. However, there are a few that have unjustifiably been tinged with the opprobrium consequent upon the overthrow of "formal grammar." Verbals come under this heading.

Unfortunately, the word "verbal" causes in the hearts of many teachers consternation born of experience, for pupil responses too often reveal that pupils, for the most part, fail completely to grasp the concept of verbals. And yet, ability to recognize and use verbals is essential to mature writing and reading.

On the day during which ver-

(NOTE: This article logically follows the writer's article, "Stick-Figures and Plot Development," which appeared in *HIGH POINTS*, April, 1936.)

bals were to be taught, teacher constructed a chart consisting of several stick-figures, each with a name. (A repetition of the definition of stick-figures will not be out of place here. "A stick-figure is a small manikin with a circle at the top for a head, a vertical line for a trunk, four jointed appendages for legs and arms and—in the drawings of the more 'advanced'—four small lines for hands and feet." Every bodily movement can be imitated by the arrangement of these lines.) Everything was in readiness for the experiment, and teacher, satisfied that the chart was appropriate, prepared to put it upon the blackboard.

The period began with the pupils patiently awaiting an explanation of the mysterious creatures called verbals. But the teacher, instead of announcing his topic, declared that he had a story to tell them, a tale of two brothers who fell in love. (Signs of animation in the class—a sixth term group.) The names of the brothers were Moe and Joe. (Two stick-figures were placed upon the board.) Moe and Joe, whose surnames were "Verb", promised their hearts to two lovely young girls, "Rosie Adjective" and "Susie Noun". (Two stick-figures with curls were drawn, each next to one of the brothers.) In the course of time, they were married and lived very happily. (A heart was drawn between each pair.)

Moe and Rosie were the proud

parents of a charming daughter, whom they named "Patsy"—Patsy Participle. A little son was born to Joe and Susie, "Gerry"—Gerry Gerund. The two children were first cousins and played together very often. One day they met another cousin of theirs, orphaned, unfortunately; this was their long-awaited kin, "Izzy Infinitive". As we look now at this delightful family, (the other two figures have since been drawn), we notice certain things.

Patsy, Gerry and Izzy have Verb blood in them, but they cannot make statements by themselves. Patsy, the daughter of Joe and Rosie, inherits many characteristics from both parents. From Rosie, Patsy inherits the ability to act as an adjective, to modify nouns; from Moe, Patsy inherits the strength, the ability to act as a verb, take an object and show action; for example, "We found Congress discussing the bill with lively interest." In this sentence Patsy modifies *Congress* and takes the object *bill*. Both parents are represented.

Gerry, the son of Joe and Susie, inherits, like Patsy, the strength from his father. From Susie, he inherits the ability to act as a noun; from Joe, he inherits the ability to act as a verb; for example: "Whistling a tune keeps one's spirits high." In this sentence, Gerry is the subject of *keeps*—a noun use; at the same time, he takes an object, *tune*.

Izzy is another cousin. He, too, has Verb blood in him, but he is orphaned. He can act as noun, adjective, or adverb, though he cannot make a statement.

At the close of this study in genealogy, the students were interested, amused, but they had a fairly clear picture of the place of verbals in writing. A day or two later, mimeographed sheets containing the family tree were passed out.

Very close to the problem of verbals is the problem of the construction of complete sentences. There is no fiend to plague an English teacher like the comma blunder or the sentence fragment. Days of intensive drill find pupils and teacher "awearied of this great world"—yet no further along. The students still make the same errors.

A group of repeaters in English Two were valiantly trying to understand the concept of "complete sentences," but success was far off. Some pupils could not understand why a fragment like "Because John left early" is not a sentence; it has a verb. Then, too, why isn't "John walking down the street" a sentence? "Walking" expresses action; therefore, it must be a verb. And what of this group of words, "Mr. Jones, an executive in a New York insurance firm, on the beach at Miami?" That seems to express an idea sensibly, does it not?

The three obstacles to eliminat-

ing the sentence fragment are here presented: the subordinate clause, the participial (or infinitive) phrase, and the long, involved, "verbless" group of words, all of which are called sentences frequently. The problem is an overwhelming one.

After a number of trials that failed because the pupils failed to grasp the concepts, the teacher thought of the usually reliable stick-figures. How could they be brought in to help where so many things had failed? This idea was selected for trial, and lo! for the first time results were truly encouraging.

Again the board was resorted to as the teacher turned his back on the curious pupils. A small stick-man was drawn with one arm stretched into the air supporting a small platform. On the platform was a chair precariously balanced on one leg. Another stick-man was drawn standing on one hand, that on the very edge of the chair. On each foot extended into the air was balanced another group of figures in impossible acrobatic poses. (The laws of empathy were here temporarily held in abeyance!) Seals with balls (imagination was needed here, for teacher is not an artist), laundry wagons, trapezes—all were brought in hurriedly, all balanced on the good right arm of the small figure at the bottom. Extravagant? Perhaps, but it served to illustrate a point to these slow boys, whose foundations in gram-

mar were not so solid as they might be.

Standing off a moment to admire this remarkable work of his, the teacher dramatically asked, "Which figure is the verb?" Hands were in the air. "The bottom one, the bottom one" was suggested by all. Why? Someone volunteered the information that everything depended upon the verb. Without him all was lost. Objectification, personification of their old enemy, the verb, caused them to look at him with a new respect!

Certain fragments were examined, the fragments without verbs first. Obviously these were no sentences; they had no verbs; they had no supporting figure. Let's look at the next: "John walking down the street." Isn't this a sentence? The teacher erased the good right arm of Mr. Verb at the bottom. Will the structure stand? Why not? There isn't the good right arm, the helping verb that is so necessary to make a full-fledged verb of a verbal. Pupils were asked to supply one. The suggestion of "is" was lauded and the arm, labeled "is" was placed on Mr. Verb again.

Fragment three was more difficult: "Because John left early." "Left" is a verb; why isn't this a sentence? This time teacher pointed out another stick-figure holding a goodly share of the burden, but not all of it. (This is our friend who is poised on the chair.) He, too, is a verb, but he is *subordi-*

nate; he depends upon the powerful little fellow beneath him, just as the rest of his clause depends upon him, all of which sounds rather awkward when one attempts to describe without the diagram. With the diagram, however, one can clarify these difficult points for the class.

This serves to indicate the method. The comma blunder was handled (on a different day) in somewhat this way, except that emphasis this time was not upon "scarcity" but "abundance." Too many verbs, supporting two separate structures (in the diagram), without a distance between them, (a period), are certain to run afoul of each other and destroy both. Fanciful? Again the writer pleads guilty, but this is offered in defense: the device provides a pleasant, genial atmosphere that is wholesome in attacking what has come to be proverbially "dry" grammar period. The students are pleased with the device; it is somewhat spectacular, and in this day of G-Men motion pictures and other attractions, anything that strikes the student as unusual is worth trying.

The question may be asked whether the staging of the miniature drama takes attention from the fundamental objectives set up. The writer holds to the negative, that the end is not lost sight of by the pupils despite the rather irregular means. It is a pleasant way of teaching one of the most

difficult concepts in the high school curriculum. What though it reach its goal by a circuitous route? This is far better than keeping the grammar lesson in the sphere of the intangible, the immaterial, a feat which the pupils are unable to handle.

The use of stick-figures needn't stop here. An ingenious teacher can employ them to advantage in other fields, for these little manikins add a concreteness to abstractions and make them more intelligible, serving to point out relationships that cannot be understood by many without objectification.

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Richmond Hill High School.

THE PRESS: A POTENT FORCE IN SOCIAL EDUCATION

An Experiment in Supplementary Reading

Teachers of history in the high schools have long recognized the need for supplementing the textbook with some form of collateral material. Twenty years ago the assignment of readings in some book other than the text was regarded as sufficient. The chief objectives of such collateral reading were "to create a life interest in the subject of history and to establish a permanent taste for substantial historical reading."¹

Today, with the tremendous

¹ Tryon, R. M., *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*, 1921, p. 176.

growth in high school enrollment, we cannot justify the use of supplementary reading for such purposes because most of our students are not interested in reading history as such for the rest of their lives. The vast majority are not going to study history after leaving school. And not many of the small number who enter college will have a sustained interest in history.

But all of them, without exception, will acquire a great amount of their historical information from such sources as the newspapers, periodicals, cartoons, movies, and radio. That our students have now and will continue to have an interest in these educational mediums is a generalization that may be made without fear of contradiction.

The writer, therefore, experimented with a type of supplementary reading based on this assumption. The objectives of the experiment were to acquaint the students with current magazines and newspapers; to teach the critical use of these materials; to bring important social problems for which time was lacking in the classroom to the attention of the students.

First and second term classes in modern European history were utilized for the experiment. It may be outlined as follows:

I. FIRST THIRD

A. Introduction to newspapers (about two lessons).

1. Selection by students of important social science terms found in the columns of the newspapers; (for example, democracy, fascism, communism, autarchy), the aim being to determine what the students know concerning contemporary problems and then to point out the necessity of studying history in order to actually understand these questions.
2. Comparison of the treatment of news stories by different papers, for example, the manner in which the *N. Y. Sun* and *N. Y. Evening Post* write up articles dealing with the activities of the W.P.A. workers with the purpose of pointing out some of the prejudices of our papers and the reasons for their attitudes.
3. Examination of editorials with news stories so that the students may learn when reporters are "editorializing," for example, the despatches of Matthews and Carney from Spain.

B. Newspaper Reading.

1. Assignment of a specific foreign nation to each student (class was di-

vided into six or seven groups, each taking a different foreign country). Every student was required to gather at least ten articles dealing with the political or economic history of the particular nation assigned. At least three different newspapers had to be used. Articles were to be mounted in a scrap book together with a summary of each. The paper which was found to be most reliable for foreign news and the reasons for this choice were indicated by the students. Finally, a composition dealing with some important current problem of the assigned nation was required, for example "Popular Front Government in France."

2. Every Monday during the term a short objective test based on the previous week's news was given. Students were advised to read a newspaper every day or at least to study one of the following weekly news summaries, Saturday editions of the *World-Telegram*, or the *Sun*, or the first two pages of the editorial section of the *Sunday Times*.

II. SECOND THIRD

Periodical Reading

1. Students were advised to read at least two articles dealing with some phase of current European history taken from two of the following magazines, *Current History*, *Harp-er's*, *Atlantic Monthly*, *Nation*, *New Republic*, magazine section of the *Sunday Times*, *American Mercury*, *Reader's Digest*, *Foreign Affairs*, *Yale Review*, *Commonweal*, *Literary Digest*, *Review of Reviews*, *Fortune*, *Monthly Labor Review*, *Events*, and *Foreign Policy Bulletin*.
2. Written reports containing the following items are required: 1. name of magazine, date of publication, title of article, author, 2. brief summary contents of each article, 3. student's opinion.
3. Attempts were made to utilize these readings (both periodicals and newspapers) in the classrooms, for example, a symposium following the well-known Town Meeting of the Air program was held on the question, "What shall be the policy of the United States towards the Far Eastern crisis?" One stu-

dent presented the case for Japan; a second the case for China; a third spoke in favor of a policy of isolation by the United States, a fourth propounded the case for American intervention.

III. FINAL THIRD

Interpretation of Cartoons

1. Five cartoons dealing with current European events were to be taken from any magazine or newspaper. These were to be mounted in the student's scrap-book. The meaning of each cartoon and the student's opinion of the problem portrayed were written out.
2. As a substitute for this work the student could make his own cartoon portraying some current European problem. The idea had to be an original one and the cartoon was to be drawn on a large poster with india ink or water colors.

For the use of those students who felt inclined to read some book on a portion of the formal work, a list of suggested readings was prepared by the teacher.

In conclusion, it was found that the critical use of newspapers, periodicals, and cartoons resulted

in a surprising degree of interest on the part of the students. They became acquainted with our more important papers and magazines and acquired some skill in using them as means of social knowledge. Correlation of this work with the formal history of the classroom was obtained. A substantial knowledge of current events was secured. Briefly, the classroom teacher utilized one of the principal sources of social education of Mr. Average Man after he leaves school—the press.

IRVING J. LEVINE.
Manual Training High School.

WRITING BOOK REVIEWS

Two valid objectives in good history teaching which may employ the use of collateral reading for their attainment are the creation of a critical attitude and the stimulation of independent judgment on the part of the students. The student has too meager a basis for a critical attitude and an independent judgment concerning a historical event when he has access to only one account, namely the textbook. Inasmuch as the attainment of these two objectives will be of practical value to the student in the reading he does when his school days are over, they should be constantly in the mind of the teacher when he selects and assigns the collateral reading to be done in connection with each course.

To teach those in his classes

how to use books and to give directed practise in the application of this knowledge are two of the greatest opportunities of a history teacher. Tryon says, "In a democracy like our own where each individual has so many opportunities for independent thinking and reading, there is particular need of training in the use of some of the most fundamental tools of education whether in school or out of school. It is a highly desirable accomplishment to be able to get with minimum effort from a number of books all they contain on a definite point. There is no other subject in the curriculum which offers such a profusion of occasions for training along this line. Other subjects may give the student many rules and regulations on the use of books but it is in the well-taught history courses that he has the opportunities for putting into practise his knowledge of how to read effectively." (1)

The Board of Regents in New York State allows the history teacher full discretion in the handling of collateral reading. Some teachers require oral reports. Others require written reports in the classroom. However, the greater majority require the traditional book review which is to be prepared at home.

Do history teachers demand that students carefully criticise the books

(1) Tryon—"The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High School."

they read? The answer is "No." Students in New York City high schools do not submit book reviews to their teachers. They submit book reports. Their accounts of material read are mere summaries usually. Hardly an attempt is ever made to criticise the books read either constructively or destructively. Not even such profound statements found in reviews submitted by college students as "I liked this book very much and I recommend it to all those who are interested in history," can be found in the majority of reviews written by these high school students whose history teachers are supposed to teach them critical-mindedness.

The writer studied under a famous American professor of history who once related the following story to a group of his more intimate pupils.

"At one time I was known as the teacher who gave the lowest grades in the college. Rarely would a student receive a grade higher than 'B' and the average grade was 'C.' I had to give these grades because my students exhibited an appalling lack of critical-mindedness. Since the first consideration in making up a grade was the averaging of the marks received on book reviews, the ratings necessarily had to be low. The students knew absolutely nothing about book reviewing. The worst part of the whole set-up was the fact that I never did tell

them what a good review was supposed to consist of. I finally came to realize that the cause of student failure in my course was entirely my own fault. I had neglected to inform my pupils as to what I expected them to do when writing a review. However, I soon solved the problem by drawing up a set of standards with which each student was to be acquainted at the beginning of each semester. Now, I find that the reviews have improved immeasurably and I have taken a new interest in my work."

The following question immediately presents itself. Is it not possible to place some suggestions in the writing of book reviews in the hands of every high school pupil? Is it not possible that high school students can become critical of the material they are asked to read if taught to do so now?

With this end in view, then, each pupil in the writer's classes is given a mimeographed copy of the following suggestions which he is told to follow carefully when writing his review.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE WRITING OF BOOK REVIEWS

A. *Mechanics.*

1. The review should be legibly written or typed in a clear, straightforward style.

2. The review should consist of two parts.

a) a brief review of the book

which is not to exceed two or three pages

b) a criticism

B. *The Review.*

1. This should include

a) a clear statement of the thesis of the book and a statement of some facts which the author gives to prove his thesis. For example, an author may write a book about the life of Napoleon. Throughout this entire book you will find that the author maintains a hostile attitude toward Napoleon, writing about him as if he were a scoundrel and a knave. The thesis of this book, then, would be the fact that Napoleon is considered a scoundrel. In short, the thesis is the author's purpose in writing the book.

After the thesis has been given, it is now the task of the reviewer to mention some facts which the author gives to prove his thesis. The author of the book considered above, may offer such statements as the following to prove his contention that Napoleon was a scoundrel:

1. Napoleon went into Russia with 600,000 men and returned with 60,000. He invaded Russia against the advice of his general staff and thus can be held responsible for the death of so many of his soldiers.

2. Napoleon was a man without principle. He was ready to make use of any religion in any way that suited his purpose. "In

Egypt I am a Mohammedan, in France a Catholic" he cynically avowed, etc.

b) Do NOT give an outline of the facts contained in the book from cover to cover. The reader of your review is not looking for a summary of the book.

c) *Criticism of the book.*

The student's reaction to

a) The author's particular bias and prejudices. Was the author fair when he called Napoleon a scoundrel? Does your own work in the history class tell you otherwise? Do your own feelings and judgments tell you otherwise?

b) The method the author employs in presenting his data. Is he too involved or does he have a clear, simple way of presenting his facts.

c) Finally, what is your personal reaction to the book? Do you think that the book is a valuable contribution to history?

CARL B. ERDBERG.

Richmond Hill High School.

THE TEACHING OF IMPRESSIONISM

The art of Impressionism in painting as it was given to us by Manet and followed to its illogical conclusion by Monet and Pissarro in the third quarter of the last century, became the jumping off point for Cezanne and later painters. Its origins may be traced through to include Courbet's *Manifesto*, Manet's structural honesty, the color of Lorrain and

Turner and the golden luminosity of Rembrandt. Monet's defection from the ranks of the slick painters like Bourgerau and Cabanel has given us a better understanding of the place of luminous and non-luminous bodies in painting. As scientists will tell us, the most luminous surface is a white one, the least luminous is black and between the two there are varying degrees of intensity.

Monet and his devotees were too absorbed in the problem of color to give sufficient heed to design in general and form in particular. They based their ideas upon the researches of Helmholtz who treated with the absorptive power of light upon colored surfaces. He developed the theory that pigments in combination will absorb more light and consequently be duller and darker than pure pigments placed side by side. Thus, in the use of pure color, especially when applied in short, precise strokes in the manner of Pissarro, the Impressionists achieved a greater luminosity than had ever been achieved before.

In addition to luminosity, the Impressionists sought mere surface illumination and the appearance of objects at particular moments of the day. Monet's collection of "Haystacks" are historic examples. Unfortunately, the zeal displayed by the followers of Monet discharged itself in a great furor of color with little thought for one of the great and ancient es-

sentials of art—form. Examination of the works of the leaders of this school of painting will disclose pictures that seem to be enveloped in a haze, or in a faint mist such as is supposed to surround a wraith in its mournful wanderings. There seems to be little substance, less structure, hardly any foundation and no rest for the weary. It is as though the paintings of the Impressionists were eternally doomed to unrest and ethereal suspension. Monet's *Gare St. Lazare* and *Waterloo Bridge* are magnificent examples.

As teachers of art appreciation, we must reckon with the force of Impressionism, analyze it for its contributions and clearly express it as a link, however weak, in the vast chain which unites the flowering of Giotto with the apples of Cezanne.

In the classroom, a problem in Impressionism may be included to stress the absence of form. In the development of the lesson, the teacher will, of course, demonstrate the technique or the manner of the Impressionists but a discussion of the loss of form alone is too abstract to be profitable. Yet the topic of Impressionism is clearly a waste of time unless students come to understand the weaknesses of this School. A creative problem is the only answer. Students may sketch simply, in pencil, an original design of a group of trees and a house, or a long winding road with mountains in the dis-

tance, or anything that is suitable for the problem. When the drawing has been completed a short discussion of line is usually in order. Students may be cautioned to retain the line when applying color but occasionally it is wise to say nothing. In the absence of oil paint (water color is not entirely satisfactory for this lesson), crayon stubs used sidewise are employed to give the effect of short strokes placed in juxtaposition to each other. The entire crayon painting is done in this technique. The effect that will be achieved will have brilliance because much of the pure color will force adjacent colors to higher intensities. In addition, juxtaposed colors will mingle "in the mind's eye" causing a veritable riot of color.

One of the first things that will be observed in this problem will be the attitude of the class. Students generally fall to and attack this problem with extreme interest. The technique is so fascinating, so utterly mechanical that it lulls all senses except those that have to do with color.

When about half a dozen crayon paintings have been completed, it is wise to stop the class and have a discussion about them. Hang the student work upon the wall side by side and call for first "impressions". The impact of the truth of what the class will observe is astounding. In no other way will they realize that while Impression-

ism produces very colorful effects, that line and light-and-dark are completely lost. For what they see is nothing but color; line has been so completely lost that in several of the paintings there is genuine and sincere doubt as to what was originally intended. Little is seen except the "technique" and color. Light-and-dark is present only in the use of naturally dark colors, such as purple and blue. As for arrangement of masses in balanced order, there is usually nothing.

It is true that this type of creative problem may be called "negative". Yet an understanding of form is so very important to an appreciation of painting that a "negative" problem which emphasizes through sheer shock is justifiable. Advertisers constantly employ negative advertising to gain dramatic attention for their wares. Insurance companies, fire-fighting apparatus manufacturers, and safety campaign societies employ negative advertising.

It is understood that a study of Impressionism implies that the class has already had a background of the elements of art without which they cannot possibly understand precisely what is lacking when line and light-and-dark are ill-used.

There are several possible conclusions to a unit in painting in which Impressionism is included. Students may be asked to create another painting keeping in mind

all of the elements, or a general appreciation lesson may be given in which the works of prominent Impressionists, devotees of the "dancing stroke technique" as well as other exponents of color who may legitimately be classed with the Impressionists—Renoir, Morisot and Degas in France, Sisley, Turner, Whistler and Clausen in England, Liebermann in Germany and Glackens, Twachtman, Hassam and Robinson in America.

J. A. ORNSTEIN.

Bushwick High School.

REMEDIAL READING IN THE SPEECH COURSE

Much that is laudable is being undertaken to improve the reading ability of the high school student. Many interesting devices to measure eye span and accuracy in retention have been contrived, and undoubtedly a great deal has been learned with regard to comprehension and the ways toward improvement in silent reading. Unfortunately, the carry over is not always so pronounced in other classes, and in particular the Speech class, where another kind of reading is in vogue as opposed to that of the subject matter class. Here the teacher still finds the inarticulate, the poor phraser, and the boy or girl who cannot be heard.

Perhaps it is to the students called upon to read aloud that teachers are more frequently referring when they say—"but they can't read simple sentences." There

is great opportunity then in a class where skill in intelligent oral reading can be an objective. Although his plight may even be more trying that the perusal of paper after paper to determine the absorption of content as gleaned from the written page, the teacher is able not only to test but he is presented with a situation wherein he can listen. Such a labor, though, if it accomplishes its purpose, seems to carry with it a real compensation, for in the future he can and must listen to a form of verbal expression which may be more pleasing to his own auditory organs as well as to those of the other listeners who must give ear while the student either speaks or reads. Aside from achieving an appreciation for the written word, which is more patent to his hearers, the student may, in all likelihood, acquire an awareness of the spoken word that can be transposed to the speech of every day life.

For the so-called normal or good student, a sufficient allotment of time for instruction and practice, for oral reading is largely a matter of practice, may be found in the regular class period. Here time can be devoted to the grouping of words that belong together for proper phrasing, to the emphasis of key words in sentences, to the correct production of sounds and to a general intelligent understanding of the passage read. Put for the pupil who is habitually halting because he is never sure

of the next word, or who is constantly reading words incorrectly, a definite form of clinic should be established. He is in need of as much assistance as the poor reader in the literature class and in a manner which has, no doubt, a more practical application inasmuch as it implies the twofold skill of speaking and reading.

Such a pupil demands the individual attention of the slow or retarded. He should be taught, first, from simple passages, in which the words and sentence structures are not beyond his acquaintance and comprehension. In improving articulation, test sentences for sounds should be the diagnostic instruments which will enable the teacher to prescribe exercises through the use of sound combinations, real and fictitious, as they may occur in actual language forms. As the student progresses, he will naturally advance to words of greater length and to sentences that are more complex in nature. Here the problem of phrasing and the division of long sentences into thought units will be the next stage in remedial treatment. Expression for meaning, conveyed through emphasis and tonal quality, would be a natural concomitant at such a period in the evolutionary process. The problem of voice, although an essential in reading, is perhaps one that would have to be attacked quite apart from the reading. In bad cases the elements of breath sup-

port and adequate audibility would necessitate special treatment through exercise, especially breathing, and of course would receive full attention before any reading was even attempted.

Consequently, it is evident that such a clinic and the therapy practiced should be supervised by a trained teacher who through scientific application and sympathetic listening, can effect a reasonable standard of efficiency in the oral communication and appreciation of a great many of our incoming high school students.

EDWARD J. LAHERTY.
Jamaica High School.

"ATMOSPHERE" IN THE CLASSROOM

"Oh dear, I hate to go to my next class," said Mary Smith as she turned to her girl friend walking beside her in the hall between classes, "It's always so dull and stupid in that room."

"I can't wait until I get to my next class," replied her friend, Susan Brown. "In my class there is always something interesting going on all the time and the period flies by so quickly that I hate to hear the warning bell for the end of the period."

What is the reason for these opposite opinions of the two friends? The cause is rather hard to analyze. Possibly in the first case the girl does not like the subject. The teacher has made little effort to enlist the child's interest or the girl

herself has failed to grasp the meaning of the subject matter which is being discussed. Maybe she is one of those timid souls who sit back and let the others take part in the discussion.

There may be many reasons for this attitude. For the writer, one of the primary purposes in presenting a lesson is to "set the scene" or in other words create a pleasant atmosphere. That intangible something, the spirit in the air, as it might be called which sets the entire tone of the classroom must be right if there is to be successful teacher-pupil relationship.

Of course, what is right for one personality may be wrong for another. Just as a house reflects the personality of its owner and thus becomes a comfortable homey place or a cold formal dwelling according to the type of people who live in it, so a classroom reflects the personality of the teacher and of the pupils.

Teachers are poor judges of their colleagues, as a rule, as they rarely see each other "in action." Yet how often in stepping into a classroom one can immediately sense the attitude, both of the teacher to the pupils and the response on the part of the latter. It may be cold, formal, and distant, the teacher maintaining excellent discipline but dominating the scene as a little dictator with the pupils acting as puppets. The writer remembers some years ago

going into a mathematics class when the teacher (a man) suddenly clapped his hands saying "All those with the right answer, stand" and, as one, about three-fourths of the class sprang to their feet. Then he clapped once more and they sat down suddenly. The performance was repeated and those pupils not having the right solution were clapped to their feet and then clapped down again. Even though the teacher in question has since been promoted to a principalship, the writer does not approve of the method observed. It smacks too much of army discipline.

One of the finest eulogies which the writer has ever heard was said of a certain language teacher. "He had just the right combination of severity and friendliness."

This golden mean is hard to achieve but can be achieved with persistent effort. The difficulty is that the longer one teaches, the easier it is to become impersonal, the students becoming just so many faces met each day instead of each one being a distinct personality to be met with in a specific way. With over-crowded classes and too full syllabi it is sometimes difficult to get the personal touch in the attitude of teacher to pupil. But we must not forget that like Mark Hopkins we are still teaching the child. Few teachers have delusions in regard to the amount of subject matter which will be remembered in later years but what will remain

in the mind of the boy and girl and later the man or woman will be whether "Mr. T. was fair in his judgments" or that "Miss A. always made the work so interesting."

With the extension of compulsory education, more of the adolescent and impressionable years are being spent in the classroom and teachers cannot afford to forget the influence they have on the minds and lives of the pupils placed in their care.

It is hard to define the "atmosphere" in a class-room but all of us have felt it many times. You can tell immediately upon opening the door whether it is tense, "the air could be cut with a knife" attitude or whether it is pleasant informal yet controlled.

Not long ago there were two contrasting cartoons in a newspaper. One showed the little old red school-house with the cross school master with his birch rod and the boys and girls reluctantly wending their way hither; the other picture portrayed the boys and girls eagerly rushing to a modern school house, a smiling teacher and a host of many and varied subjects. The caption heading was "Education Then and Now." What a contrast these illustrations present. Much of the latter spirit is due to the teachers' attitude in the modern school. Instead of the martinet of earlier years there is the teacher who tries

to be a congenial elder sister or brother to the students.

Recently a colleague said to the writer, "I wish I could arouse the interest and enthusiasm I see in your class room" while the writer replied "I would like to have my pupils as docile and quiet as yours are." Most teachers have tried numerous methods of arousing interest. In some subjects it is easier than in others but each teacher has evolved some plan which best fits his or her case. As the writer happens to be working in the field of social science, the thought strikes her that in that particular field it is less difficult than in other subjects such as mathematics. Use of magazine material, cartoons in the daily newspaper, pictures of historical events, clippings from newspapers, biographical sketches and portraits of men prominent in public eye in early years and today, stamps, coins and original cartoons illustrating current events crude but illuminating, dramatization of events of past: all of these can be used in a history class with telling effect. Reports of radio programs which fit in with the day's lesson can be given by the pupils who can be rewarded by extra credit for their efforts. Although there might be objections to this method of bribery, after all it is human nature to want credit in some form for what one does. Students of high school age cannot be expected to work for the love of

it and there must be some incentive to spur them on.

Finally, the atmosphere in the class room is created by the personality of the teacher. Some instructors have been blessed by nature with the characteristics which inspire the pupils. Others must consciously develop an attitude which calls for the best from their pupils. If a person does not wish to cultivate such an attitude, the teaching profession is not for him. There is a special obligation on those who deal with undeveloped souls and minds.

Every one knows the type of person who is charming and agreeable outside of the class-room, a "regular" person to his or her friends, but who somehow drops this personality when seated behind the teacher's desk and assumes a mask of dignity, aloofness, and severity in the presence of a class. No one does his best work in a tense atmosphere and pupils feel this in a class room and work or are good because they must and not because they want to. In this case, the class room work fails in its purpose. Young teachers especially seem to feel that they must compensate for their youth by being unduly severe. As Dale Carnegie in his book "How to Win Friends and Influence People" aptly expresses it, "If you wish the other fellow to be friendly, approach him in a friendly spirit." Children are great

imitators and will respond eagerly if approached in the right manner.

In order to develop this ideal attitude in the class room, this "right" atmosphere, the teacher must have first, a mastery of the subject so that the pupils will respect the wealth of knowledge and experience manifested and above all, a sympathetic understanding of children.

This friendly attitude begun in the class room often leads to fine friendships in later life between a teacher and his or her former pupils. Both are benefited since the elder person gets an insight into the viewpoint of the younger generation and the younger may profit by the breadth of experience and the maturity of vision possessed by the older.

In teaching, it is so difficult to estimate the value of the work done but there is much satisfaction in the smiling faces and pleasant attitude with which the present or former teacher is greeted if the instructor has caught a glimpse of the vision of friendliness and tried to spread it in the class room. The old theory that school days are only a preparation for life is no longer true; for the child, his school days *are* life and whether that life is full and abundant or narrow, restricted and unpleasant, depends in great measure on the personality of the teachers at whose feet he sits to absorb his knowledge.

JENNIE E. POTTER.

A PICTURE OF A HIGH GROUP IN THEODORE ROOSEVELT HIGH SCHOOL

Probably the first sight that greets the eyes of the teacher of an H group is a flurry of waving hands. In other words, half the class will exhibit an eagerness to volunteer in nearly every activity. The first sound that beats upon the ear drum of the teacher of an H class is usually a buzz of conversation that will be augmented or diminished, depending upon the will of the instructor. These first impressions are borne out by a more thorough acquaintance with the group, and present possibilities and problems for the teacher.

In general, two types of student are observable in the H class. Their proportions are unpredictable, but their natures seem to remain fairly constant. There is, first of all, the bright, fluent, irrepresible, sometimes unstable pupil. He is in an H group because of special ability in English, and often in oral English. He is an expected and welcome member of the class, for by means of such a student the lesson may be greatly enriched. It is he who supplies the "cream" of the period. From his readings and outside activities he has collected a fund of information that very often is pertinent to the subject on hand. In a lesson on "Microbe Hunters", for example, he will introduce material from Vallery-Radot's "Pasteur" or Locy's "Makers of Biology".

During a recitation based on the work of Helen Keller, he will volunteer to discuss "Seeing Eyes" or the American Foundation for the Blind. It is this type of pupil who follows the "enrichment" suggestions offered to the class, who asks to have his poems read to the group, or is eager to report on additional home reading. This effervescent student frequently has strong interests which do much toward enlivening an oral English period. One of my pupils boasted that he had acquired skill in thirty-two card games; another was an avid collector of snakes; and still another was a scholarly investigator of the customs of American Indians. More often, these decided interests center about specific work in English, and in such cases the students may be profitably introduced to the various dramatic and literary clubs of the school.

This same type of student, however, is sometimes a source of disillusionment to the teacher. Occasionally, he is eager to speak, but has little of significance to impart. His verbosity merits him a squelching which will probably dampen his ardor harmlessly. At times it will be discovered that the bright performer of the class has rebelled against homework and routine tasks of any kind. A personal interview in which he is informed that the teacher recognizes his shortcomings may bring him up to the

mark. Sometimes this species of pupil is of a cocksure and determined nature, bent on a long-winded argument with his teacher. He is certain that narration is identical with description, that an adjective is an adverb, or that Amy Lowell was the author of *Sea Fever*. Usually, a terse suggestion that the student have recourse to a reference book or an after-period conference is sufficient to hint to him that he may be mistaken. Many students of this nature have an insatiable desire, not only to "put the teacher on the spot", as it were, but to run the lesson off on a tangent. If there are many such clever orators in the class, a discipline problem may arise. If the difficulty is nipped in the bud, however, such a situation may offer an opportunity for constructive character training. It may be pointed out that a thoughtful interest in the opinions of others may enrich our own lives, and that a love of tongue-wagging is not an essential in the cultivated individual.

The second type of student presents few problems. He is of a quiet, conscientious nature, and usually is a fine all-round student. He does his homework, even when he is absent; he writes smoothly, with very few errors in usage; he is always prepared, and may be relied upon for a concise response when the witty windbags of the

class are temporarily flooded. Sometimes he presents an individual problem of too much reading and too little out-of-doors activity. When I once discovered a pupil who had read seventy books in the course of the term, I recommended a round of tennis or baseball lest too much blood flow to his brain. One minor difficulty connected with these students is that they are often intellectually precocious, but emotionally and socially immature. There is very little that a teacher can do in such instances. These pupils are young chronologically, and in the course of time they will eventually grow up. But this limitation should be remembered when a teacher suggests additional readings to the group. Where a pupil might profit from O'Neill's plays about the sea, for example, he might not thoroughly enjoy "Mourning Becomes Electra." The major problem presented by these soothing students is their almost gruesome preoccupation with marks. They should be habitually warned against working for such rewards, and should be reminded that their work is designed to develop them, and not their average.

This picture should, I think, be taken into consideration when a teacher weighs the pedagogical techniques to be employed in the H group. Of all the points in the lesson plan, excluding "enrichment", "motivation" and "summaries" loom as most significant.

Pupils of both types want to know why a definite assignment is being given, and have the right to know. In the same way, both classes of student are glad to demonstrate at the end of a period that they have grasped the salient points of a lesson.

When we consider the criteria for promoting students into an H class, I believe we should also keep this picture in mind, and select our pupils not only for their marks on diagnostic and class-room tests, but also for their characteristics as individuals. Both types of student are desirable constituents of an H class, and though they present their problems, they are, in the final analysis, where they belong—in the H group.

MADELEINE B. STERN.
Theodore Roosevelt High School.

PROBLEMS OF THE PERSONNEL WORKER IN A COMMERCIAL VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

The majority of the vocational high schools of New York City were originally continuation schools, offering part time instruction to pupils under seventeen who were regularly employed. When the depression settled down and it became clear that junior employment was practically at an end, these schools organized full time classes to provide instruction for those children who would normally have gone to work.

Coincident with this develop-

ment we had a rise in the number of commercial pupils over the entire United States—an increase of 86% from 1928 to 1934 as reported by the United States Bureau of Education. This phenomenal growth reveals itself in the Central Commercial High School. Under its principal, Alexander S. Massell, this school has increased its enrollment from 979 full time pupils in 1932 to 3311 in Sept. 1937. The entrance requirement of the school is one year of high school work and it offers two and three year courses in the very popular commercial subjects, Stenography, Typewriting, Bookkeeping, Salesmanship, and so forth.

It is the business of the personnel worker to discover what type of pupil is enrolling so that the course of study may be adapted to his needs and his program suited to his capacities.

The school admits:

1. From other vocational high commercial courses, those pupils believed by their counselors not capable of completing senior high school commercial work.

2. From other vocational high schools pupils transferred after a commercial try-out.

3. From the senior high schools those pupils who are either failing in academic subjects or not interested enough to make the required effort to continue that work and those who cannot stay in school four years and who frankly seek training for a job in an office.

That there has hitherto been a lack of provision for this type of pupil is shown by the large enrollment at the Central Commercial High School and the number who are refused every term for lack of room.

We have discovered that:

1. The majority of these children come from poor homes—most of their families are on relief and our NYA pay roll is one of the largest in the city. As a result we have to do a great deal of welfare work.

2. Our pupils present many health problems.

3. They are overage as compared with pupils of the same grade level in New York State.

4. They are distributed widely in scholastic aptitude though they are grouped below the average and are probably part of that large group found in all schools, below average mentally, not very industrious, with no particular aptitudes, but determined not to do factory work.

5. They are below grade in scholastic achievement. A progressive achievement test was given to the pupils who enrolled in February 1935. The results showed that in the fundamentals of English and Arithmetic 98% of them were below grade. However, those left in the school at the present time are not those who were above grade in the achievement test given them at the time of registration. Either success in these fundamentals is

not a factor in learning Stenography and Bookkeeping or the teachers have been able to bring them up to normal grade in the two years they have been under instruction.

6. They drop out of our courses in as great proportion as they do from the senior high schools. Of the 474 pupils who entered in February 1935 only a hundred and fifty-two remain. Most of the pupils choose the stenography course. It may be that the elimination is due to unwise choices of this course, and might be prevented by selection through testing of those likely to succeed in stenography. Stenography jobs are scarce and less capable pupils should take other courses. In February, we gave our entering classes the Monroe Silent Reading Test and the Minnesota Clerical Test to see whether comprehension of what one reads or clerical aptitude would correlate with Stenography marks. The results were disappointing as we got no correlation between Stenography marks and either test. There are various explanations:

1. That the teacher's marks are influenced by subjective factors.

2. That the work of the first term is not a sufficient tax on the ability of the pupil to show differences in capacity. For that reason, we must continue the comparison of test results and marks through one and possibly two more terms. We are also experimenting with

The Hoke Prognostic Test of Stenographic ability in the hope of getting a correlation between this test and stenography marks. It is one of the major responsibilities of the personnel worker to work for the setting up of a satisfactory selective process where various courses are offered.

I have only barely suggested the problems facing the personnel worker in a commercial vocational high school. Much of our work remains to be done, but I think we are justified in making a few suggestions to the administrators of such schools.

1. Entering pupils should be given a basic program of commercial subjects. During this term, those pupils should be tested in intelligence, knowledge of the fundamentals of English and Arithmetic and clerical aptitudes. On the results of these tests, teachers' estimates, and an interview, an educational plan should be made for each pupil in which his potential abilities may be developed.

2. Provision should be made for the over-age pupil who cannot remain long in school so that at least one skill may be developed which will help him secure a job when he must leave school.

3. Courses should be flexible so that pupils can transfer easily from one to the other.

4. New courses should be developed on the lower levels of routine commercial work to provide

instruction for the non-literate pupil.

5. More effort should be put into developing the correct social and work attitudes in these pupils, factors that are extremely important in getting and holding a job.

6. Placement work should be developed and follow up of graduates should be done to see if the school is realizing its objectives. For vocational courses should eventuate in placement in a job.

CORNELIA M. BEALL.

Central Commercial High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

STUDIES IN MEXICO

The Centro de Estudios Pedagógicos e Hispanoamericanos de México has been established on a permanent basis under the patronage of President Cárdenas. The regular session is already under way at Tlalpam in the suburbs of Mexico City. In addition, there is being planned an International Summer University for the six weeks beginning July 4. This summer session will be primarily for teachers and others from the States who travel in Mexico during the summer.

J. B. S. Haldane and Bertrand Russell of England, Ernst Toller of Germany, and Alexander Meiklejohn and Louis Gottschalk of the United States have accepted invitations to teach during this summer session. In addition, the staff will include E. C. Lindeman, Martín Luis Guzmán, Hon.

Thomas R. Amlie, M.C., Professor R. W. France, Diego Rivera, José Clemente Orozco, Crede Calhoun, Frank Jellinek, William Lander, and others.

The work during the summer will be divided into seven sections or projects; (1) Teaching: a demonstration by doing; (2) The Plastic Arts; (3) Revolutions: their successes and failures; (4) Modern Journalism: the state of the world press; (5) Mexico: learning the land through field trips, lectures and recreation; (6) Seminars in Public Affairs; (7) Hispanic American Studies. All will be given in English; the last mentioned course will also be offered in Spanish.

For further information address Dr. Salomón de la Selva, Director, Centro de Estudios Pedagógicos e Hispanoamericanos, Tlalpam, D.F., Mexico.

REVIEWS

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN GERMANY

By John Dambach, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Occasionally we are privileged to read a doctoral dissertation that is something more than a display of statistical hocus-pocus or an erudite pursuit of the inconsequential. Occasionally we are met with a mind whose attributes dignify the subject it undertakes. Such an experience is John Dambach's "Physical Education in Germany." At first blush, it promises to be just another historical survey. But the reader quickly becomes aware that here is something more than a tabulating machine at work. For Dr. Dambach has probed deeply into his subject and has come forth with material that is as provoking as any that has come out of doctoral theses in a long time.

Dr. Dambach has traced, through the various changes in the form and substances of physical education in Germany, the social, political and economic forces which they express with such uncanny fidelity. From 1807-1914, through the Weimar Republic, to the present nightmare in Germany, Dr. Dambach points to the startling and yet inevitable manifestations of the regnant social will in phy-

sical education. Under the republic, the desire for democracy expresses itself in the virtual abandonment of formal drill, the taking on of athletics, and the increase in free recreational activities. With the establishment of the Nazi principles, physical education becomes transmogrified. Martial virtues are stressed; the body is exalted over the mind; and the whole system is harnessed to the Nazi ideology, becoming, in short, a vehicle for political propaganda. The heroic life is stressed; boxing, gliding and flying enter as new forms of activity. The severest kind of regimentation is instituted, here as in all other forms of personal and social life.

Dr. Dambach's study ends with a discussion of the variables and constants in German national life as these find a voice in the physical education program.

The greatest tribute that we can pay this work of Dr. Dambach's is its readability and compelling attractiveness to the general reader as well as to the specialist. Few so-called contributions to education attain this wider currency because few are so significantly grounded in basic realities.

A. H. L.

RADIO IN THE CLASSROOM

By Margaret Harrison, Prentice-Hall. \$2.50.

Miss Harrison is concerned with radio not as an instructional but as a supplementary tool. She shows how educational objectives can be realized through the radio and lists criteria for the selection of material for classwork. Each subject in the curriculum is separately treated and specific class activities listed. There are provocative hints on procedure both for teacher and pupil.

While pedagogically effective, these findings somehow manage to miss the rich overtones and implications of radio in education. Highly practical and definitely usable, Miss Harrison's suggestions fail to come to grips with some of the essential challenges that radio offers to the life the children are leading and are to lead. For example, although there is a unit here on developing an elementary discrimination of current radio fare, there is no consistent, well-implemented plan for equipping the student to appraise the function of the radio in his own life. Nor is there any systematic indication of radio's deficiencies and the means available for remedying them. Throughout there is implicit the assumption that we ought to thank some one or other for the possible pedagogical blessings that radio can confer on us and let it go at that. The notion that the radio is a more

or less democratic institution, as yet morbidly sensitive to the desires of the demos and that within the classroom lie vast untapped reservoirs of social insight and passion which if properly directed may conceivably alter the nature and content of radio programs, seems not to have entered Miss Harrison's scheme of things. Of course, the program and possibilities envisioned by the author lie wholly within the realm of the elementary schools. But even here there is more latent sound instinct and good sense than either teachers or radio directors are aware of. It is to the task of developing a critical as well as an appreciative spirit that such a volume as this should have dedicated itself. In so far as it fails in this vital respect, its usefulness as an aid to the teacher, especially on the secondary level, is subject to very serious limitations. As a more or less ingenious exposition of how radio can extend and vivify classroom experiences, it succeeds admirably. But it stops just short of the significant.

A. H. L.

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS IN ADULT EDUCATION

By A. D. Mueller, Prentice-Hall. \$3.50.

If the masses are to participate in the benefits and obligations of our growing democratic and industrial system, some sort of education beyond the formal school

is vitally essential. A carefully planned and scrupulously worked out program of adult education has thus come to be recognized as necessary insurance that eternal vigilance over our liberties and rights may be kept. The phenomenal but aimless mushrooming of the adult education movement throughout the country bears testimony to the vivid realization of the need for some such permanent addition to our educational system.

Dr. Mueller's discussion of adult education is an eminently sound and practical attempt to outline the techniques necessary to develop and execute an adult education program that will have vitality and force. The special problems posed by adult education demand special techniques and highly trained personnel. It is here that Dr. Mueller is especially fruitful in his treatment of such matters as creative discussion, the public forum, the lecture, visual and verbal illustration, teaching adults of limited education background.

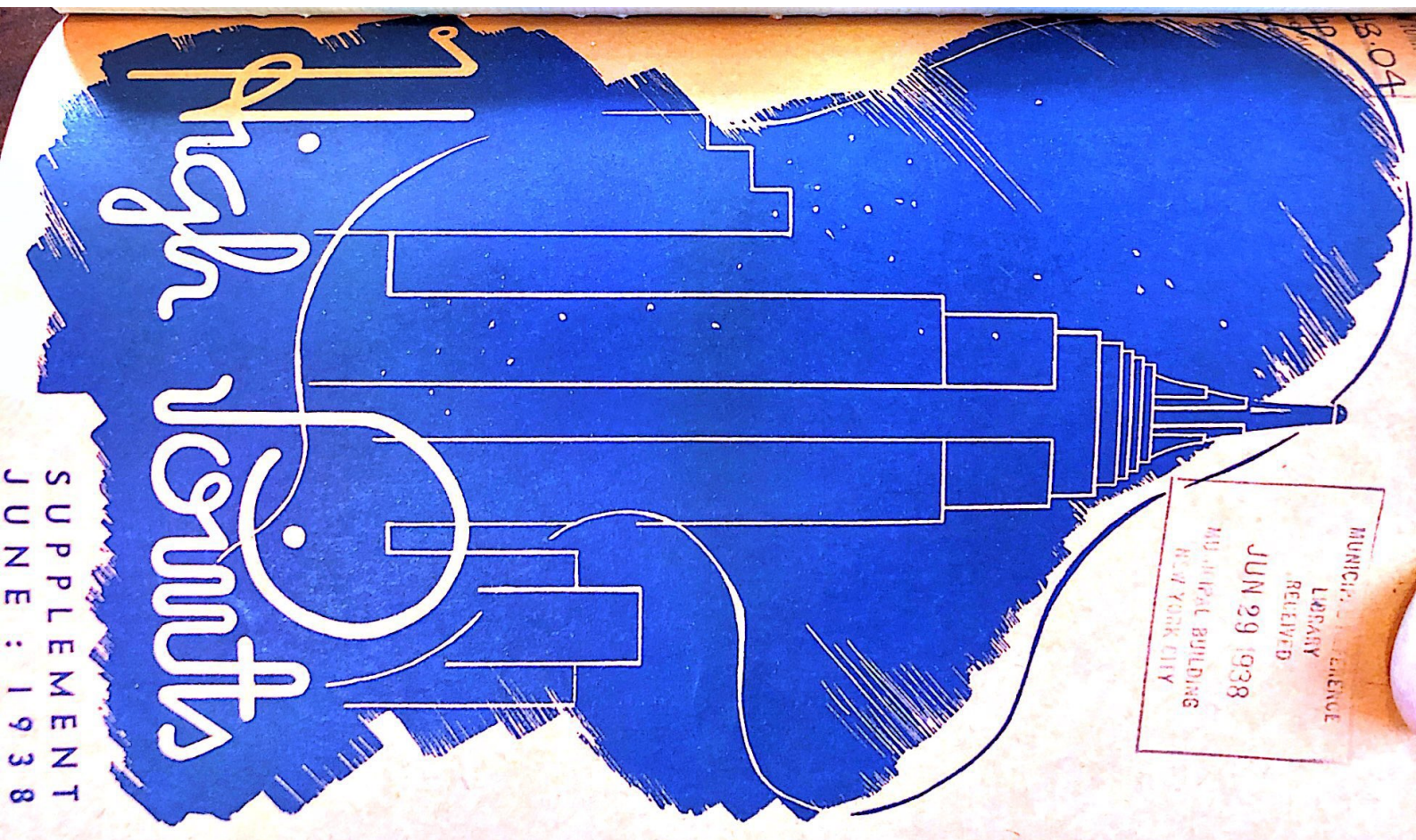
Throughout there is an alert and sympathetic understanding of the practical exigencies attendant upon educating adults, and fine adjustment of content and methodology to the unique problem of educating those who come to school for

reasons more pressing than the truant officer and parental compulsion.

A gratifying feature of this volume is the stress it lays on the matter of guiding adults in reading. This has received comparatively little recognition despite its crucial rôle in the educative process. Adult education, like that of adolescents, is not entirely a matter of the ear. True education demands participation, and without adequate guidance and remedial work in reading such participation is bound to be abortive if not entirely useless. The selection of appropriate reading matter, the analysis of factors influencing difficulty of such material, the establishing of readers' services—all these are indispensable to those engaged in adult education work. For the more seriously handicapped students, the reading clinics which are rapidly springing up in various sections, are prepared to render invaluable diagnostic and corrective assistance.

The adult educationist will find Dr. Mueller's book a worth while contribution. It is hard-headed, sensible, and keenly aware of the theoretical and practical difficulties inherent in launching and efficiently maintaining an adult education program.

A. H. L.



HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE
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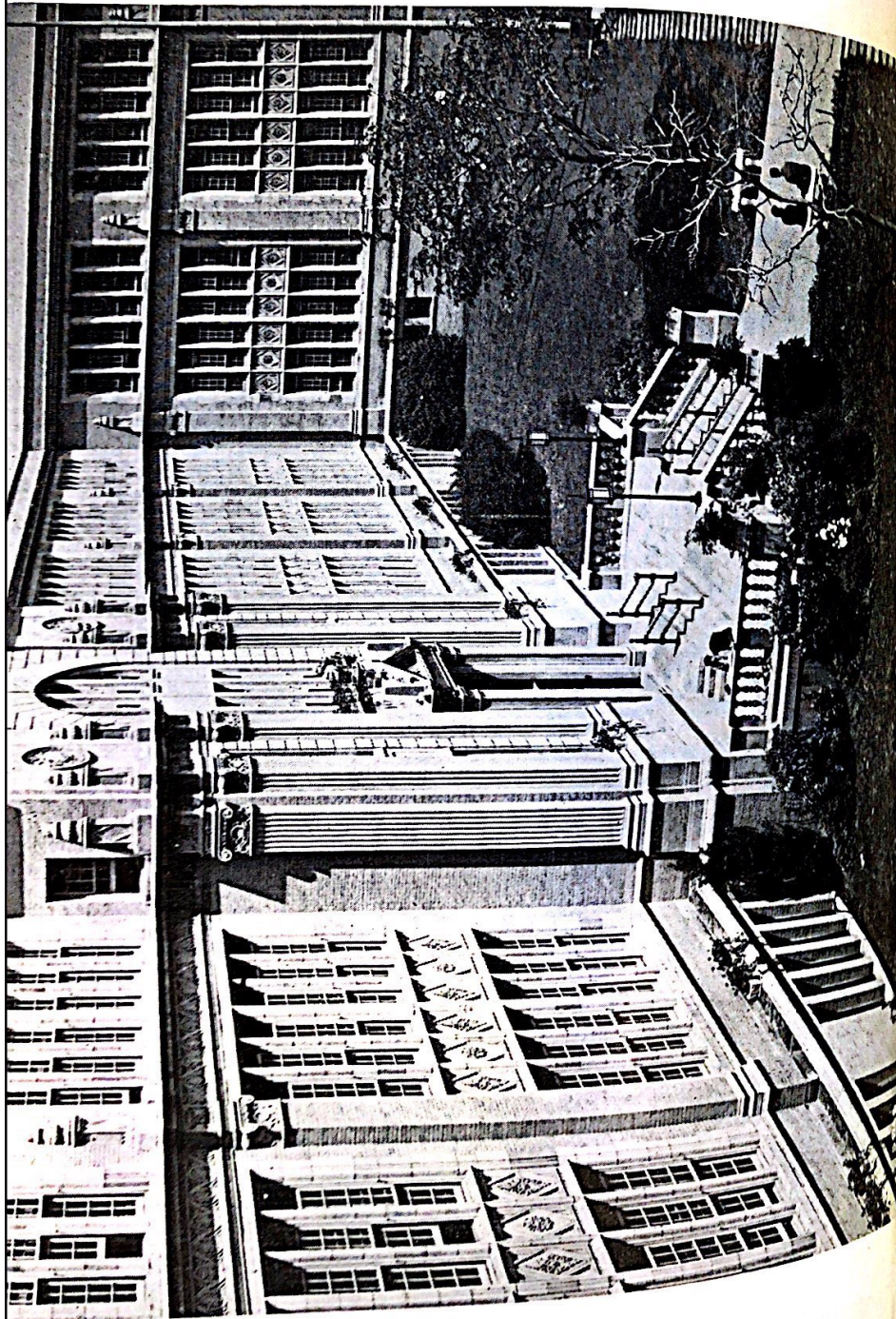
HERMAN H. WRIGHT

WILLIAM A. HAMM

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11" in size. They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.



A CONTRAST—AND A PROBLEM

SKYLINE SCHOOL

We are in a section of the Borough of The Bronx. About us are huge blocks of six-story apartment houses forming a continuous wall. Near by is a main business thoroughfare. Along it runs a lofty elevated structure, from which is heard at frequent intervals the roar of passing trains. The street is lined with busy shops, chain stores, and branches of midtown department stores. The sidewalks teem with go-carts and pedestrians. Traffic moves at a snail's pace to the rhythm of traffic signals.

In front of us is a huge school building. Its yards are as generous as the congested nature of the neighborhood will permit, but scarcely in proportion to the size of the student body. For the X High School houses no fewer than 9,700 students and 274 teachers. Its structure contains some one hundred ten classrooms, not to mention numerous offices, store-rooms, and special units.

Should you pass by the building at seven-thirty in the morning, you will find children and teachers arriving for the Morning Session, which begins at a quarter to eight. Should you be there at five-thirty in the evening, you will encounter the last stragglers of the departing Afternoon Session. Inquiry at the office will reveal that two other

school structures in the general vicinity are utilized as annexes, and that these too are in session for fully nine hours of the day.

A visit to the school in connection with the possibility of enrolling your child as a student will bring you in contact with one or more of the following members of the administrative staff: the principal, an administrative assistant, deans of boys and girls, some fifteen department chairmen, eight grade advisers, psychologists and counselors, librarians, and clerical assistants. You will be asked to consider the possibility of enrollment in a general, an academic, a commercial, or a mechanic arts course—with the privilege of certain combinations of the features of two or more courses available in certain cases. You leave the building with the impression of having seen a huge scholastic machine in operation, under conditions that have done wonders to minimize its unwieldiness and to introduce as much of the personal touch as possible.

FRONTIER SCHOOLHOUSE

A drive across the new Triborough Bridge and south for several miles, or a forty-minute run on the Long Island Railroad, brings us to a community in the Borough of Queens. We find ourselves passing

by one-family homes surrounded by spacious gardens and lawns. Shade trees are plentiful, and occasional patches of woods occur in undeveloped tracts. No business establishments are visible until we arrive at a "Main Street" thoroughfare, which, with its string of food, hardware, and specialty shops, looks very much like the chief street in one of the better-type small American cities.

In the outskirts of the community, we come upon a white brick and stone school building. Generous stretches of greensward surround it. An adjoining athletic field, numerous trees, and liberal expanses of free ground combine to give the effect of a small college campus. The building itself is but three stories in height, and is constructed in gracefully proportioned wings.

An air of comparative peace and leisureliness pervades this school. Sessions do not begin until close to nine o'clock in the morning. Formal classwork is over by two-thirty in the afternoon. For this high school has not been called upon to serve more than 2,400 pupils with the aid of its faculty of 75, and it can do so without resorting to "shifts" to provide seats and rooms for all. The more modest proportions of its student body and teaching and administrative staff will afford you some of the intimate touch of a country school when you step in to ask about admission requirements.

While the course of study offers the full academic and commercial curricula, there is naturally a simpler set-up of options and combinations than obtained in the Bronx school. As you leave the building after an interview with the principal, a distant cockcrow makes you feel as though this were a veritable urban frontier.

NUMBERS AND DIVERSITY

The two schools described here are close to the extremes of the forty-eight senior academic high schools that serve a total of 256,000 pupils in New York City. Between the two schools are found a mass of diverse and varied institutions which reflect the checkerboard of local communities in which they are located.

The problem of dealing with large masses is one thrust upon the High School Division by the phenomenal growth in the registers of senior high schools. In 1920, there were 68,000 pupils in the high schools. By 1925, the number had risen to 123,000; by 1935, to 246,000. Thus, in the decade of 1925-1935, the high school population more than doubled itself. The causes for this rise are many. Among them may be mentioned the raising of the compulsory education age by law, the growth of unemployment, and the realization by the public of the growing importance of secondary and higher education.

The mere provision of physical

facilities to house this vast number of students has been a constant budgetary and engineering problem. Registers of individual schools have soared to huge totals in the more congested areas. The following table gives the approximate size of the registers of the forty-four schools in existence in 1936:

Size in Thousands of Pupils	Number of Schools
1,000	1
2,000	5
3,000	6
4,000	4
5,000	7
6,000	6
7,000	6
8,000	3
9,000	5
10,000	1
Total..	44

This wide diversity is an indication of variations in local conditions, as well as an index to the adequacy of building facilities in terms of optimum school size. This has been fixed at a figure not great-

ly in excess of the register of the Queens school that we have visited. Toward the attainment of this goal for a large proportion of the city's high school pupils are directed all new building programs.

NUMBERS, THE INDIVIDUAL, AND DEMOCRACY

Handling numbers of people frequently leads to regimentation, because the imposition of uniform standards is the easiest solution from a routinier's viewpoint. The High School Division of the New York City Board of Education is aware of this pitfall. It has set up as its basic credo the preservation of true democracy within its schools. It feels that the finest educational expression of democracy arises when pupils who are treated as individuals are influenced by teachers who likewise preserve their individuality, in schools each of which has a distinct personality of its own. Only in this fashion can a full consciousness of parallel rights and responsibilities be developed to serve as the basis of true citizenship.

MEETING INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

Analyzing the Pupil and Adapting the School

THE CHANGING CURRICULUM

There was a time when the conventional secondary school course consisted of a traditional combination of classical languages, mathe-

matics, and English, with lesser samples of science and history. If the pupil proved to be incapable of digesting this fare, he was thrust forth to seek his education

elsewhere, which, in the usual case, proved to be the much advertised school of "Hard Knocks." This cavalier assumption that the school is always right, and the student only occasionally so, has been abandoned. The curricular offerings of the schools are designed to meet the needs of all the pupils of high school age. When conscientious effort on their part results in failure, the assumption is not that they are not worth bothering with, but that guidance must be given to find courses and levels of work from which they *can* profit.

The basic, relatively undifferentiated curricula offered by the high schools are the general, the academic, and the commercial. Both the general and the academic courses concern themselves in large part with the arts, the sciences, and the languages in their non-technical aspects. They differ in that the academic course adheres more strictly to the preparation requirements of the major colleges; while the general diploma may be secured without conforming to as fixed a pattern of groups of subjects, and permits, in addition, the inclusion of industrial arts work.

The commercial course would seem to bear a definitely vocational name. Nevertheless, so basic is business to the economic life of this country, that it seems logical to regard schools which equip pupils with such techniques as those of typing, stenography, bookkeep-

ing, and office practice, as being essential in the broadest sense of the term. The effort in such schools is not so much to produce experts or specialists as to develop the habits and skills that make for success in business careers. Preparation for higher schools of business administration is an important phase of the commercial course.

In addition to these foundational courses, many high schools offer definitely specialized training in a variety of fields. Some of these are specialized schools wholly devoted to this type of work. Examples of such will be described in a later section. Others are schools of the "cosmopolitan" variety, which include among their offerings a large number of differentiated courses of study adapted to the needs and aptitudes of various groups of pupils.

Thus the Haaren High School offers, not only general, academic, and commercial courses, but also industrial arts courses in: mechanical and architectural drawing, automobile mechanics, electrical work, aeronautics. The Washington Irving High School provides the usual three courses, and special work in: food and dietetics, dressmaking, pattern modeling, costume design, millinery.

GUIDANCE WITHIN SCHOOL AND BEYOND

Persons hearing of the diversity of possible educational paths that the immature pupil may select may

well be inclined to ask, "What aid does the school system give these children in making choices that they will not regret?" To set up a multiplicity of choices without expert guidance is to invite chaotic conditions of maladjustment.

The division of Guidance and Placement of the Department of Education has provisions for guidance which reach down into the elementary and junior high schools and up toward college, employment, or some other plan for the post-high school years. Its chief activities are:

1. Studying the complete child (psychological tests, health, family status, etc.)
2. Helping him to adjust in school and after.
3. Giving information about schools, colleges, occupations, community agencies.
4. Providing co-operative education and placement.

Co-operative education, the combination of theory in the classroom and application of it in business, is applied on a large scale in three city high schools, Julia Richman, Newtown, and Textile. The course is an adapted four year commercial course, with majors in retailing and secretarial work. During the last two years, the young people go out to business in alternate weeks. The total on register is 1800, of whom 1236 are eligible to go to work.

In Julia Richman High School, to take a single illustration, the guidance staff includes a General

Adviser, two Placement and Vocational Counselors, four Class Advisers, several Teachers-in-charge of Intelligence Tests, and a Scholarship Staff. From the moment of the first interview with a student a natural, friendly "first name" manner characterizes the attitude of the adviser. Proof of the confidence which these workers develop in pupils is the fact that many return for aid and advice long after graduation.

PROVIDING FOR LEVELS OF ABILITY

To cope with the problems of guidance and adjustment, the High School Division has set up machinery for discovering the potentialities of pupils for success in school, and for guiding them into suitable courses. All entering pupils are now tested for general intelligence and reading ability. The former quality is found to correlate to a high degree with success in most school subjects. The skills involved in reading affect the degree to which the pupil can profit at all from contact with the printed page.

By introducing remedial teaching in the first year of high school for all pupils markedly deficient in reading, the schools have salvaged a large percentage of such cases, and brought them up to an acceptable standard of competence. Otherwise there occurs the tragic situation of a willing student's floundering about in his studies

without being fully aware of the source of his own difficulties.

For pupils of such limited mental ability that even remedial teaching is insufficient to enable them to pass the usual prescribed work leading to a diploma, special Practical Arts Courses have been instituted at James Monroe, Manual Training, and other schools. Subject matter and activities that appeal to persons who are not academically minded are stressed, with the result that a large number of individuals who make essential and valuable citizens are certificated as graduates from four-year courses which they have pursued with a sense of accomplishment, and a freedom from the frustrations of failure. At the present time, a curricular committee is engaged in working out a comprehensive scheme for courses for the non-academically minded.

HONOR SCHOOLS

At the other end of the scale are those pupils who absorb the usual subject matter offerings with great ease, and who are therefore in danger of being understimulated. A great many of our high schools make provision for them by establishing special classes in the various grades and subjects, in which work of a richer and more advanced type takes place.

More recently several of the larger high schools have formed honor schools within schools to provide the potential leaders of the community with greatest possible

opportunities. Typical honor schools are found at Evander Childs, De Witt Clinton, James Monroe, Julia Richman, and Morris. The testimony, both of the faculties and student bodies, is that the plan affords the fullest development for special curricula and teaching methods. Sound administration safeguards against the danger of encouraging a sense of superiority in the children selected.

THE SPECIALIZED HIGH SCHOOLS

New York City has a number of special high schools which have the function of providing unified curricula for students whose special interests and capacities merit the opportunity for advanced specialized training. These schools do not aim at competition with higher institutions of collegiate or professional rank. Their primary function is to provide a course that is of itself complete and well rounded, so that the graduate may fit into one of the numerous "semi-professions" and skilled vocations that modern industry and business have given rise to. They also strive to avoid narrow specialization, and to equip pupils who show exceptional ability to enter institutions where their training may be carried further.

THE HIGH SCHOOL OF MUSIC AND ART

The High School of Music and Art was established in February, 1936 to meet the needs of students talented in either music or art, who

desire to obtain a complete secondary school education and at the same time pursue a complete course in music or in art. In the past, such talented students were obliged to devote their late afternoons to the study of their specialty, which in no way was related to their school studies. By integrating the academic studies with music or art, the High School of Music and Art enables these students to pursue a purposeful and well organized course of study that will combine the specialized work in music or in art with a full scholastic course of study.

The students are given three periods daily in music or in art. The music students are given a four years sequence in Theory and Composition, Chorus assignment, and either Instrumental Practice or Voice Training. All music students pursue the same course in Theory and Composition and in Chorus Singing. Students registering for Instrumental Practice are given Orchestral and Ensemble Practice as a regular course; vocal students become members of Choral Ensemble as a regular course. Both the course in Orchestral and Ensemble Practice and the course in Choral Ensemble are closely articulated with the study of Theory, Musical History and Music Appreciation.

The art students are given a four year course in Studio Practice and Crafts. During the first two years, all students pursue the same art program, devoted largely to the

Fine (or Expression) Arts. At the close of the second year the students are permitted, if they have given demonstrated evidence of requisite talent, to specialize in Decorative Arts or Industrial Arts and Crafts, or Fine Arts.

The work, therefore, in the last two years is devoted intensively to the development of individual capacity and to more independent creative work. At no time, however, is the student in this academic high school, given what may be called vocational arts and crafts. Even those who elect industrial arts, do so for the cultural rather than the more limited vocational value of the subject.

AGRICULTURE AT NEWTOWN HIGH SCHOOL

Newtown High is a comprehensive high school of the New York City School System. Although, with its enrollment of 8,500 pupils, it is a very large secondary school, size alone is not its characteristic feature; for its complexity makes it unique among our educational institutions. Its course of study prescribes nine tracks — General, Commercial, Merchandising, Music, Fine Arts, Home Economics, Technical Arts, Industrial Arts, and Agriculture.

The Agricultural Course was established in 1917 with an original enrollment of seven students. It has now expanded to an enrollment of 265 pupils. Undoubtedly the high focus placed upon agriculture by the war and the fact that the

area in which Newtown High School is situated is probably the last agricultural frontier of our city, conspired with educational values as causes for the founding and development of plans for teaching farm practice and theory. The Agricultural School is situated upon a fifty-acre plot. There are two school buildings for classroom exercises and various structures: barn, poultry house, storage houses, green houses and machine shop where real farm practice is carried on. Minor repairs and maintenance are student and faculty chores. Many constructive enterprises have been brought to realization by the students. The material equipment is not behind that of the average farm. Among the machines are a two-ton truck, caterpillar tractor, manure spreader, potato digger, sprayers, and various types of harrow. Special work is done in poultry with a chicken population at the present time of 600. Two horses are guided by the students in working upon the farm. Pupils raise all types of small garden garden truck and do considerable work in floriculture. Practical farm pursuits, scientific principles of agriculture and didactic subject matter constitute the central divisions of the course. The school has modified the content of many of the academic subjects, English, mathematics and biology to meet special needs. The farm student must work hard. His is an eleven-months' course with but

short vacation, and in the last two years of his studies he must spend his summers in the prosecution of actual and scientific farm practice under the authority of owners of private farms. To gain his full four-year diploma, the student must pass a very difficult Regents Examination in Comprehensive Agriculture and must meet also State requirements in other academic subjects.

THE STRAUBENMÜLLER TEXTILE HIGH SCHOOL

The Straubenmüller Textile High School has been in existence for nearly twenty years. There is probably not a single textile firm in the city that does not employ students of the school in responsible positions in every branch. The school has contributed—in no small measure—to the development of the wealth of the textile industry in New York City.

The Straubenmüller Textile High School represents the monoteknical type of technical school—where all branches of the clothing and textile industry are taught: the fields of distribution, design, science, maintenance, manufacturing. In a polytechnical school only the productive phase is considered—but many industries are taught. The great fields of distribution and design of the various products are not considered. A monoteknical school—as represented by the Straubenmüller Textile High School—due to its specialization, is far more effective in its particular field than

a polytechnical school where an attempt is made to teach many industries.

The special curricula offered are:

- A. Marketing of Textiles, with electives in
 - (1) textile accountancy
 - (2) secretarial practice
 - (3) buying and selling of textiles—display work
- B. Draping Costume Design—For students who wish to become stylists, costume designers, or manufacturers of clothing.
- C. General Textile Course—For students who want a variety of textile work combined with academic work—regardless of any definite occupation.
- D. Applied Textile Science—This course aims to prepare students to become laboratory assistants, chemists or testers of different types of fabrics in chemical, dyestuff, and biological laboratories.
- E. Applied Textile Design—This course prepares students to become designers of printed or woven fabrics. Choices are offered in costume illustration, hand decorated fabrics, interior decoration, and advertising art.
- F. The Cooperative Course—Since from 70% to 80% of materials sold consists of textiles, a cooperative course

is offered, training young people for buying and selling positions in the retail stores.

BROOKLYN TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL

The experience of the Placement Bureau at the Brooklyn Technical High bears testimony to the need for a preliminary type of technical training to equip graduates to fill the 100,000 positions available in New York City to persons with a technical training of less than college grade.

Six well-rounded "terminal courses" are offered as a direct preparation for employment, in addition to a preparatory course for technical colleges. It is noteworthy that eighty percent of the graduates enter higher institutions. The terminal courses are: architecture and building, art, chemical, electrical, mechanical, and structural. They are all sufficiently broad to avoid a narrow field of specialization, and yet closely enough integrated and thorough enough to provide definite technical knowledge and skill.

Among the types of establishments in which positions are held by graduates of these courses are:

1. Control, research, and testing laboratories.
2. Plants manufacturing ink, paint and varnish, soap, perfume, dyes, foodstuffs, drugs, and toilet articles.
3. Metallurgical factories.
4. Engineering and construction companies.
5. Public service corporations.
6. Airplane and radio factories, and design shops.

The graduates hold posts ranging from that of messenger, for the beginner awaiting a technical assignment, to that of fully accredited engineers, who have secured their degrees through evening college study.

STUYVESANT HIGH SCHOOL

The science course in the Stuyvesant High School attempts to produce in all of the students a favorable mind-set toward the activities of science and invention; in many, an understanding of the findings of science; and in a few, the genius to develop still further the contributions which scientific discovery and mechanical invention can make for our common good.

The basic course is essentially an academic course which includes three years of fundamental science study in biology, chemistry and physics and a minimum of two years of mathematics. Added to a normal academic course in the first two years are exploratory courses in metal and wood shops and in mechanical drawing. A generous provision of special science laboratories and of shops makes possible

THE WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE

Nothing was more fixed and immutable than the curricula of the old academies, of which the high schools are lineal descendants. Nothing is more flexible than the curricula of our present high schools, where the criteria of social and individual usefulness, rather

the offering of following courses not found in the ordinary academic course:

1. Qualitative Chemistry.
2. Quantitative Chemistry.
3. Applied Mechanics.
4. Applied Electricity.
5. Electron Physics.
6. Advanced Individual Experimentation in Physics.
7. Science Sketching.
8. Machine Design — Elementary and Advanced.
9. Architectural Design — Elementary and Advanced.
10. Ship and Airplane Design.
11. Science Instrument Making — Elementary and Advanced.
12. Metal Science.
13. Foundry, Forge and Machine Shop Practice.
14. Pattern Making.

HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

Unique among the high schools of the city is this school of commerce in its more technical and applied aspects. In addition to the usual commercial subjects, advanced courses are offered in: salesmanship, advertising, speed reporting, office management and materials of commerce. It is not strange that the graduates of this school have risen to positions of eminence in numerous business and financial establishments.

than the factor of traditional acceptance, constitute the basis for judging each proposal.

This tendency is evident not only in the organization of varied curricula within the inclusive school, and of specialized schools, but also in the constant changes within each

field of subject matter instruction. Standing subject committees are constantly alert to each constructive trend within the field of their specialties. The changes within syllabi which they recommend are invariably given serious consideration by the Board of Superintendents, and generally put into prompt operation. Textbook lists are broad and inclusive, rather than narrow and prescriptive, and offer individual schools a tremendous degree of discretion in making choices suited to particular needs.

In some subject matter fields, notably English and Speech, the range of permitted variation is so wide that two schools may offer the same grades of work to the same types of pupils without overlapping to the extent of a *single* common textbook title. It is this quality of

NO LONGER EXTRA-CURRICULAR

The annual Report of Superintendent of Schools Harold G. Campbell for 1936-7 significantly opens with a chapter titled "Nothing is Extra-curricular". In this startling phrase is summarized a fundamental truism of modern curricular theory and practice, that the extensions of student activity, which were formerly treated as incidental side lines, are of such paramount importance that they demand incorporation in the official curriculum. To quote the report (pp. 2-3): "The line of demarcation between curricular and extra-curricular activities is gradually becoming

local autonomy in the several schools that gives to each its valued quality of individuality, and offers the fullest possible scope to the ability of the teaching and supervisory staff.

The High School Division has sponsored a long series of studies and experiments, which have been tried out in a limited number of schools, and adopted, modified, or discarded in accordance with the findings. Among these may be mentioned the experiment with remedial reading instruction for all first term pupils, and the curriculum for the non-academically minded which will be applied in three schools in the fall of 1938. No greater promise of the capacity of an organization to minister to growth can be found than the power to grow on its own account.

much fainter, and, in some instances, is disappearing. At the present writing, for example, extra-curricular activities need not necessarily be conducted after school hours, nor are they always in charge of teachers who volunteer their services, nor may students in every instance be permitted free and untrammelled selection, guided only by their whims and interests."

The range of activities included in the average high school presents a picture of impressive variety and complexity. Every interest, from the purely recreational hobbies to the scholarly and aesthetic special-

ties, is represented. In a very large measure, the so-called extra-curricular sphere is more responsive to the effect of outside influences than the established course of study. Witness the rapidity with which such organizations as aviation and radio clubs have sprung up.

The major inclusive fields within which student activities are formed are:

1. School government and administration.
2. Service.

INTEGRATION AND ARTICULATION

Education has often been likened to a ladder. One difficulty for those engaged in the arduous climb has been that some of the rungs have not matched others—that little or no attempt was made to bridge the gaps between the main sections up which the climb progressed. The mortality in high schools because of the suddenness of the transition from the elementary school, the difficulties encountered by college freshmen after the removal of the maternal safeguards of the high school—these were well known and apparently inevitable phenomena.

The newer trend is to abandon conceptions of purely sectionalized responsibility within the school system, and to adopt the attitude of continuous responsibility for the child's welfare, no matter what the stage of his schooling. A committee of supervisors has issued a report on Articulation and Integration, which, despite the fact that the details of its operation are yet

3. Tutorial squads.
4. Music, art, and drama.
5. Poetry writing and choir-speaking.
6. Publications.
7. Athletics and games.
8. Miscellaneous clubs, with and without subject applications.

The recital of all the activities within any one high school would more than strain the limitations of this booklet. Interested readers are referred to "All the Children," Dr. Campbell's report for the past academic year.

to be worked out, stated the fundamental truth that the secondary school must accept the task of educating *all* the children of high school age.

The future implications of such a sweeping proposal must include:

1. The acceptance of individual, rather than grade standards of achievement.
2. The reaching down of the senior high schools into the elementary school range for subject matter suitable to a large body of older, but academically weak pupils.
3. The increase of guidance facilities to a point where each pupil may receive careful attention to the nature of his problems and progress.
4. The free modification of all existing systems of course prescription and certification.

A narrow parochialism in matters educational is not the sound approach to a proposal, however revolutionary. Through its current experiments and studies, the High School Division is building up a mass of data and techniques which will be of great value in implementing the more practicable portions of the report.

PROFESSIONALLY CONSCIOUS TEACHERS

No school system can rise above the level of the rank and file of its teaching body in terms of cultural and ethical standards, and professional idealism. The high school teachers of New York City justly regard themselves as members of a worthy profession, and are so regarded by their supervisors. The right of free discussion of school and civic problems, and the privilege of joining any suitable organizations are theirs without any question.

The organizations to which members of high school faculties belong are of various types. So far as membership in national associations is concerned, the New York teacher plays his full part. The very meeting of the National Education Association, which is the occasion for the issuance of this booklet, is an indication of that. Within the New York school system, numerous organizations have developed to permit the joining of forces on the part of teachers with common interests. Some of these bodies are inclusive, as the High School Teachers' Association. Some are based on particular ranks within the system, as the First Assistants' Association and the High School Principals Association. Some are groups which have been founded to further the general professional interests of the teaching body. A very large number are subject associations, which find a strong unify-

ing bond in the scholarship and pedagogy of their respective fields. Finally may be mentioned the experimental society which, in its various sections, carries on investigations for the improvement of teaching and learning in the schools. The large and active memberships of these numerous groups are evidence of the truly professional attitude of the teaching body.

The relation of most of these bodies to the divisional administration has been close and friendly. Committees of members have been called into consultation on matters affecting the particular sphere of their interest as a matter of regular procedure. In many cases, complicated studies have been undertaken by an association at the invitation of the Board of Superintendents, and the findings utilized for the welfare of the system. As an instance might be cited the study of the needs of the academically underprivileged, now being made by the First Assistants' Association.

Some of the organizations issue their own bulletins or yearbooks. As a general forum and outlet for the professional contributions of the high school teachers, the division sponsors and finances HIGH POINTS, a monthly bulletin edited by Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Foreign Languages. In this publication, of which some 18,000

copies are distributed to the teachers each month, are brought together accounts of experiments and studies made in the various schools of the city, as well as articles and reviews of a more general nature. Its professional status, and its standing among similar educational journals of the nation, are attested

WHITHER OUR HIGH SCHOOLS?

The prophetic role is ever an ungrateful and hazardous one. To predict what the high school of even the near future will be like is to risk being refuted by the fact. Nevertheless, certain well defined trends are evident upon which reasonable conjectures may be based.

In the first place, the high schools will have in their care a far larger proportion of the school-going population than has formerly been the case. Whatever the complex factors behind this trend, statistical studies reveal that the tendency toward marked increases in elementary school registers came to an end in 1925, and that since 1932 there has been an appreciable net decrease. Hence the high school's problems, from the quantitative angle, bid fair to grow rather than diminish.

Moreover, the high schools will undoubtedly shift farther away from the college preparatory pattern, which for so many years was regarded as the norm. The traditional requirements of unchanging higher institutions will no longer

to by the fact that it appears in the "Education Index". By far the greater part of the contributions accepted have come from classroom teachers, who reveal by their fearless and keen analyses of conditions the degree to which they have been encouraged to grow into members of an honored profession.

dominate the curriculum offered to the great mass of pupils who do not enter college. To do the colleges justice, they, in turn, have begun to amend and relax their timeworn requirements.

Another necessity of the future will be the adaptation of the high school to handle a greater range of mental ability than has previously fallen to its care. The sane solution of the retardation problem will undoubtedly eliminate the wasteful and tragic practice of wholesale "leaving back". These pupils, who are unable to cope with the conventional set-up of subjects, must be served by the development of courses that will bring their capacities to full and useful fruition.

Finally, it is not improbable that the present divisions of subject matter will be altered by thorough-going co-ordination and elimination, and by the addition of wholly new fields. To these, our specialized high schools have already pointed a prophetic hand. In the democracy of the future, the high school will play no minor part.

THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL EXHIBIT

at the
EDUCATION EXHIBIT
of the BOARD OF EDUCATION
of the CITY OF NEW YORK

The senior high schools are meeting the needs of their diversified populations in two ways. We have cosmopolitan, comprehensive high schools that offer within one building a number of curricula, designed to care for the different interests as well as the abilities of their respective student bodies. On the other hand, we have the special high schools that provide for the pupils with special talents, abilities or interests. Our exhibit is planned to illustrate the work of the cosmopolitan and of the special high schools. A very brief description of the different exhibits follows. More detailed ones are available in the respective booths.

ART WEAVING

Booths 1, 16

MISS FRIEDA KEAN, *Assistant Director, in charge*

This exhibit gives a graphic picture of the various types of handicraft weaving, both in finished form and in the process of production. Included are:

1. Tapestries: needle point, Ambusson, Gobelin, Hungarian and long stitch. Especially striking is a needlepoint of Washington crossing the Delaware, a Gobelin of Washington and Lafayette, and several reproductions of Millet paintings.
2. Rug-making: all oriental varieties.
3. Lace-making: knitted, crocheted, Armenian, needlepoint, Renaissance, Hardanger.
4. Colonial fabrics.

BROOKLYN TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL Booth 35

MR. J. M. GRAY, *Chairman of Technical Drafting and Design, in charge*

Many of the courses in this school are of an advanced and specialized technical nature. Some of them are illustrated in the exhibit which includes work in metallography, technical chemistry, applied and theoretical physics, strength of materials, structural and machine design, applied mathematics and mechanics. A feature of the display is the photomicrographic camera used to show faults and flaws in metals.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

Booths 2, 3
MR. NATHANIEL ALTHOLTZ, *Director of Commercial Education, in charge*
The displays indicate some of the progressive activities in which the pupils are engaged.

The charts, projects, publications, and models illustrate how the student is brought into contact with real business problems, and how he has to exercise intelligence, judgement, resourcefulness and self reliance in their solution. The photographic exhibits show our pupils in action and suggest the variety of applications that transform the classroom into a workroom teeming with business life.

ENGLISH

Booth 9
MRS. MARY HEROLD EASTERBROOK, *Chairman in Walton High School, in charge*

The English exhibit aims to reveal through photographs of English activities that English is an experience; through student publications that English provides an audience for talented students; through a series of unit lesson plans that English develops students along the lines of their interests and abilities, and that it correlates its work with that of other subjects. In short, English serves all students and all subjects.

FINE ARTS

Booths 7, 8, 22, 23, 24
MR. FOREST GRANT, *Director of Fine Arts, in charge*

Many courses have been organized in Fine Arts to meet the needs and interests of boys and girls, and to provide a foundation for those who are to have special training later in art schools.

The fine arts exhibit shows examples of art representing the different kinds of courses in drawing, design, color, commercial design, advertising art in dress, crafts and appreciation.

An elaborate program of activities will show pupils engaged in: making linoleum prints, pottery, photographs, wood-block prints, posters and murals; painting in oils and water colors, etching, sketching from figure and finger painting; designing costumes, stage sets and commercial products.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Booths 4, 5
MR. LAWRENCE WILKINS, *Director of Foreign Languages, in charge*

Seven foreign languages are studied in our high schools. The exhibit presents two aspects of the work: (1) Still exhibits of pupils' work,—posters, maps, scrap books, copies of foreign language papers, written work of pupils, relief maps, models of parts of foreign houses; (2) Programs of pupil activities. Groups of pupils will sing in the languages that they are studying; will dance the dances characteristic of the foreign language groups; play the characteristic musical instruments; act as interpreters of the foreign languages that they study.

GUIDANCE, EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL

Booth 27
MR. CHARLES M. SMITH, *Director, in charge*

The exhibit cannot demonstrate the heart of the guidance program, which exists in the individual interview, a personal and often an intimate affair. It does, however, give materials and suggestions for carrying out such a program. Examples are shown of the tools and methods used in providing guidance and placement service. Cooperative education is shown as administered in three city high schools. The earnings of co-operative students totaled, from July 1937 to date, \$152,439.78.

HAAREN HIGH SCHOOL

Booth 28
MR. PHILIP J. PINCUS, *Annex Head, in charge*

This school has developed several special courses to meet the needs of its student population. The exhibit illustrates activities included in these courses. They are shown in four groups.

- Group 1: Air conditioning; automobile mechanics; electric wiring.
- Group 2: Art weaving; ceramics.
- Group 3: Art metal work.
- Group 4: Aviation mechanics.

HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

MR. I. W. COHEN, *in charge*

Booth 14

This school is the only one that specializes in commercial education. Among its unique features are; the course in foreign trade; the class in speed reporting; the integrated business classroom; the commerce museum. The exhibit will illustrate these features.

HEALTH EDUCATION

MISS LORETTA RYAN, *Asst. Director of Health Education, in charge*

Booth 26

Photographs showing a wide range of activities for normal and atypical students are shown. The graphs, charts and record forms are used to facilitate the administration of the many phases of the program. Projects in miniature, showing recreational activities, the teaching of hygiene and safety procedures complete the display.

THE HIGH SCHOOL OFFICE

Booth 17

Visitors who are interested to get information about the Senior High Schools of New York City will be welcome in the office.

The advance in design and size of our school buildings will be strikingly shown here by large photomurals.

A unique contribution of the High School Division to educational progress is the publication "High Points," written and edited by our senior high school teachers and published by the division. It symbolizes the professional-mindedness of our staff. Copies are available in the office to interested visitors.

HOMEMAKING

MISS MARTHA WESTFALL, *Director, in charge*

Booth 17a

Modern appliances used in the home and in teaching homemaking will be shown in the exhibit of this department. Activities included in the new syllabus will be illustrated.

MATHEMATICS

Booth 13

MR. JOSEPH M. ORLEANS, *Chairman in George Washington High School, in charge*

The exhibit of mathematical activity ranges from the purely academic to the most technical. It is shown in four categories.

1. Mathematics as it contributes to different sciences.
2. Mathematics in relation to art.
3. Mathematics in the field of sport.
4. Mathematics for its own sake.

Included are instruments which mechanically minded pupils have made, as well as architects' diagrams and engineers' charts prepared from the students' own field notes and measurements.

MUSIC AND ART HIGH SCHOOL

Booth 25

MRS. RUTH CALDER, *in charge*

Paintings, sculptured forms, crafts, pottery and metal work, made by pupils of the third, second and first years, show one aspect of the work of this school.

Activity in music is represented by manuscripts of original compositions by students, samples of manuscript writing, programs of concerts and student recitals. Orchestras and choral and instrumental groups from this school will give many performances in many centers during this week.

NEWTOWN HIGH SCHOOL

Booth 15

JOHN M. BAKER, JR., *Administrative Assistant, in charge*

Situated in what is probably the last agricultural frontier in this city, this comprehensive high school includes an agricultural course that is unique in our senior high schools. The exhibit features certain agricultural processes—poultry raising, dairying, market gardening, landscaping. In addition the Mechanic Arts department will exhibit specimens of the work in that course.

PHOTOGRAPHY SALON

MR. JERRY A. SCHUR, *Stuyvesant High School, in charge.* Booth 33

The high degree of competence developed by pupils in extracurricular activities is well illustrated in the Photography Salon. The prints that have been hung have been selected from a far larger number of excellent pictures. Equally interesting exhibits could be arranged for other extracurricular activities and hobbies. This one is presented as typical of the kind of work that is done.

SCIENCE

MR. PAUL B. MANN, *Chairman in Evander Childs High School, in charge.* Booths 6, 8, 19, 20

Pupils' projects are featured in the Science exhibit. Many of those that are shown and demonstrated have won first prize awards at the Junior Science Fair. They are all characterized by the ingenuity, skill, scientific knowledge and inventiveness of the boys and girls that planned and made them. The exhibits are grouped under the special sciences. Only a few are here selected at random to indicate the variety and ingenuity of the projects.

1. General Science: working model of an "iron lung"; an erupting volcano.
2. Physiography: A relief map of Staten Island; a seismograph.
3. Biology: Effect of certain light rays on plant growth; embryology of the chick.
4. Chemistry: A working model of an electric resistance furnace; automatic electroplating apparatus.
5. Physics: Photoelectric cell; an automatic elevator; a Wilson Cloud Track Chamber.

An added feature is a display of 40 student science publications from 25 different high schools. These are written, illustrated, edited and published by pupils and they are of considerable merit.

SCIENCE WORK SHOP

MR. PAUL B. MANN, *Chairman in Evander Childs High School, in charge.* Booth 21

At the 1939 New York World's Fair there will be demonstrated, in a workshop to be constructed for that purpose, typical junior science activities. This will be a joint project of the Board of Education and the American Institute. Pupils of the New York City Schools will work under the direction of selected teachers. The model of the workshop is shown.

SOCIAL STUDIES

MR. DANIEL TENROSEN, *Chairman in Thomas Jefferson High School, in charge.* Booths 11, 12

The hope of people throughout the world, "Education for Peace," is the theme of an exhibit in this section. It is developed by posters, cartoons and models made by pupils, and courses of study and syllabi made by teachers. Some of these will be available for distribution.

Another part of the exhibit includes the following:

1. Community Civics.
2. American Economic Life.
3. American Life, Political, Cultural and Social.
4. Ancient, Medieval and Modern Life in Europe, Asia and Africa.

The ideas are developed by charts, murals, motion pictures and a symposium of students. The films were made as part of a city-wide project in which children get first hand information and impressions of the city by conducted tours on municipal-owned ferry boats.

SPEECH EDUCATION

FRANCIS GRIFFITHS, *James Madison High School, in charge.* Booth 34

The materials on display comprise charts, diagrams, slogans, posters, marionettes, scrapbooks, note books, model stage sets, costume designs and classroom publications.

As a feature of the exhibit, free speech recordings and speech diagnoses will be provided. At request, teachers appointed to supervise the exhibits will diagnose the speakers' speech patterns, pointing out merits and suggesting corrective procedures. Special lists have been prepared so that visitors may carry away tangible pictures of their speech habits in addition to the free phonograph record.

STRAUBENMULLER TEXTILE HIGH SCHOOL

MR. E. J. CONWAY, *in charge.* Booths 30, 31, 32

This school will show in its exhibit how boys and girls are prepared to meet the educational needs of one industry. The booth is divided into five areas and shows the production of a garment from the raw material to the finished product. The following processes will be shown:

1. Spinning and weaving.
2. Electrical and mechanical maintenance.
3. Testing and dyeing.
4. Fabric and costume design.
5. Draping and pattern making.

STUYVESANT HIGH SCHOOL

Booth 29

MR. FRANK PANUSKA, *Administrative Assistant, in charge.*

Special projects done by boys in physics, chemistry and biology form the core of the exhibit of this science high school. The chart illustrating the basic curriculum has the electives and optional courses represented by photographs illustrating classroom activities in the particular class leading toward the field of interest chosen by the pupil. Some of the shopwork or drawings done in these selected courses are displayed in proximity to the course chart.

TEXTILE ARTS


Booth 10

MRS. MARY E. MAGRANE, *Director of Sewing, in charge.*

The exhibit illustrates our new course of study stressing the unusual rather than the regulation type of work. The eight units of work are used as a background design. Pattern making, draping, costume design, dress design, the budget, hats, equipment, tools, reference books, text books and magazines are exhibited in the Textile Arts Booth.

DRESS PARADE

Exhibits of necessity tend to display the spectacular and the visually attractive. In a very real sense, a school system cannot be "put on parade." To get a vital picture of a school, one must visit a school—more than that, live with a school. Its fundamental and lasting achievements in imparting basic skills, in developing desirable appreciations and attitudes, in creating sound character, cannot be exposed for momentary inspection. For these, our most eloquent exhibit is the hundreds of thousands of young men and young women whom we have graduated as valuable citizens of the city.

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HIGH POINTS

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which is on file in Libraries

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TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP: HIGH SCHOOL JOURNALISM*

Only a few years ago, the course that is known today as "high school journalism" was looked upon with a suspicious eye by many reputable teachers as nothing more than a passing experiment, an educational frill. Today, there is no doubt but that the subject is here to stay. It is a part of the curriculum of most of the high schools of this city and elsewhere, and it received the final stamp of respectability when the Board of Regents of this state saw fit to recognize its existence by including a question on journalism on the Regents Examination last year. That being so, it is high time, I believe, for the men and women who have pioneered in the teaching of this course, to stop and consider its real scope and its vast possibilities.

A major impediment to the rapid development of high school journalism as a subject of prime importance in the secondary school curriculum, is that many of the teachers in the field take the title of the course altogether too literally and too seriously. Journalism in the high schools should not, paradoxical though it may sound,

attempt to be a course in technical journalism. Primarily, high school journalism should be a course in *critical thinking*—in the field of journalism.

I believe there is no room in the high school curriculum for a course which is so purely vocational in nature as one in the technique of journalism. Too few of our students become journalists in real life to warrant the existence of such a course in the secondary schools. As a matter of fact, there is no justification for the existence of such a course even on the college level, and I agree most heartily with President Hutchins of the University of Chicago when he says (*The New York Times* of Feb. 17), "The shadiest educational ventures under respectable auspices are the schools of journalism. It is like teaching 'how to get married and like it' and other subjects which can not be taught." Schools of journalism are indeed of little value for they teach nothing which is of any real use to a newspaperman which he could not pick up in a week or two while working on a newspaper, or by reading a single good textbook on journalism.

Nor is such a course justifiable in the high schools on the ground that it serves as a training camp

*An address delivered at the annual convention of the Columbia Scholastic Press Association held at Columbia University.

for aspirants to the school newspaper. Proportionally too few "make" the paper to permit this to carry any weight as an argument for giving the course. No, the only real justification for high school journalism—the choice of name is an unhappy one—lies in the fact that it makes it possible for a group of specially selected students to spend a semester in the stimulating society of one another examining critically what nearly everybody, unfortunately, accepts without question—The American Newspaper.

As a course in critical thinking, this subject is, in my opinion, unequalled for possibilities in the high school curriculum, for while studying, journalism, students can be made to *think* about newspapers and their ways. Before they leave the course, they should have learned, among other things, that not everything that appears in print is true, merely by virtue of having been given that distinction, that newspapers publish lies, either actually or by innuendo, that news stories are nearly always colored by the political bias of the particular newspaper, that newspapers are more interested in boosting circulation than in anything else, that in the newspaper business there are sins of omission as well as commission, that it is necessary to read at least two newspapers with different biases in order to get even an inkling of the truth, that a newspaper is often "liberal" only

because it can sell more copies under that guise, and that in effect such a newspaper can be more pernicious than an avowedly conservative one, that one must, in short, learn to "read between the lines" of a newspaper, if one is to read it intelligently.

You may conclude from this that it is my aim to develop a group of super-skeptics. Not at all. To have learned all this is merely to have prepared oneself for intelligent citizenship in a world where clear thinking on the part of the electorate is absolutely essential to clean government. No instrument of propaganda is more far-reaching than the newspaper in this age of literacy. The power of the press as a mold of public opinion and as a controller of elections has been demonstrated too often to need proof. It is the job of the school to prepare its students for intelligent citizenship, but just as important is the duty of the school to give the potential leaders of the next generation proper training, and that is why a course such as high school journalism can be of tremendous importance.

Since the subject is an elective one and there are usually high scholarship and personality requirements and since in nearly all cases it is a prerequisite for the most coveted of honors, that of joining the staff of the school newspaper, it offers, as I have said, a rare opportunity for grouping the most

intelligent, the most gifted, the most promising section of the student body—in short, that section which, all other things being equal, is the most likely to produce the leaders of their generation.

Please don't misunderstand me. I don't mean that we are to take these boys and girls who have signed up for a course in journalism and fool them by teaching them something else. Unquestionably, they should be taught journalism but not necessarily in the same purely technical way in which they would be taught, say, auto-mechanics or dressmaking.

From talking shop with a number of my colleagues who teach journalism in the various schools throughout this city, I have found that unfortunately a great many of them *do* teach it in just that way. Perhaps the fault lies partly with the authors of the textbooks on high school journalism. They all treat the subject as a purely technical one and make no attempt to teach something that will be of *permanent* value to the great majority of the students of the class, most of whom will have less use for the formal journalism they learn than for the mathematics they waste years on—and the Lord only knows to what little use most of us put all the algebra and trigonometry we agonized over in our school and college days. The only mathematical calculations I ever make are those involving the addition of the stubs in my check book,

and I couldn't do that any worse even if I hadn't studied calculus.

What I mean is that the students should be taught journalism in a social context, or *practical* journalism, if I may call it that to distinguish it from the purely theoretical type of journalism such as is taught invariably in schools of journalism. In such a course in practical journalism they would learn about news stories and leads, about features and editorials, about layout and make-up, about headlines and type size, but it would be incidental to teaching them *why*, for instance, one newspaper will put a certain story on page one and give it a double-column spread while in another newspaper the same story, cut in half, is buried somewhere on page thirty-six. In their study of headlines they would investigate *why* some newspapers will give a story a five-bank head, while others will give the same story an insignificant one-bank head. While becoming acquainted with the various feature writers on the metropolitan dailies, they might investigate, for instance, the connection between the views of the political commentator and the political leanings of the owner of the newspaper. While studying editorials, instead of merely learning about the types of editorials, such as persuasive, interpretive, etc., it might be very enlightening to compare the editorial bias of the paper with the financial interests of the men who control it. And so on,

throughout the course.

In other words, while being given the journalism they are so eager to learn, the hand-picked students of the journalism class, with plenty of thinking ability, are given an opportunity to do plenty of thinking. It will be much harder to slip over propaganda on citizens with such training than on the average gullible voter who believes what he reads just because it is in the newspaper, and who is Republican because he happens to read a Republican newspaper, or an anti-New Dealer because the newspaper he has grown accustomed to reading has become anti-New Deal, or a believer in preparedness and huge expenditures for armaments just because the newspaper he reads believes (for reasons too deep for him to fathom) in preparedness and huge expenditures for steel cannons, steel battleships, steel tanks, and steel helmets.

If every citizen were taught to examine newspapers in the critical way in which students in this course are, it would be much more difficult for an unscrupulous chain of newspapers to create a war scare or return to office by a terrific landslide a mayor who has been definitely proved by an investigating commission to be thoroughly corrupt. If every student in the schools were taught to *think* instead of to accept on faith, the strangle-hold of the press would be broken in a single generation.

I would therefore recommend such a course in journalism, or critical thinking, or what-you-will, for every student in the high schools, but until such time, at least the most intelligent, those who take the elective course in journalism, should be taught in the manner I have indicated.

Another important aim of the course in journalism should be to make the students socially conscious, to develop in them an active interest in world affairs. The daily newspaper is nothing less than a history text covering a twenty-four hour period, and students learn how fascinating is the game of watching and interpreting world-history in the making.

It follows that from an interest in world news comes a better understanding of world problems. Students learn how closely our lives are interwoven with a war in Spain or a sit-down strike in France. They become alert, intelligent readers who look behind the news for cause as well as ahead of it for effect. From this clearer grasp of vital issues in the world today develops a social consciousness most necessary in the citizen of the immediate future.

It is a deplorable sight to watch a boy or girl growing up into manhood or womanhood with an absolute indifference to anything but his own animal needs, with the stupidly erroneous attitude that what is happening anywhere else in the world except in the imme-

diate vicinity where he happens to be existing, is no concern of his. Such mental laziness, such unwise selfishness, such short-sighted egotism, can breed nothing but the most undesirable type of citizen—the kind who lives and dies in a rut, his thinking mechanism rusted from disuse. It is my belief that if the democracy for which our forefathers bled is to survive in this country, the schools must make every effort to teach the voters of

the future how to think for themselves on important issues; it must train them so that they will not fall victim to every propaganda bait that is laid for them.

That is why high school journalism, the course we who are assembled here have the privilege of teaching, is, or at least, could be, one of the most vital in the secondary school curriculum today.

JESSE GRUMETTE.

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THE SCHOOL AND THE CONSUMER

Throughout the country consumer organizations, consumer publications and individual consumers are bringing pressure to bear on school authorities to consider the introduction of consumer education courses. The implication is not so much that the school has overlooked so fundamental a phase of its work as the training of the young man and woman for the practical business of living (our courses in junior business training are plenty of evidence to the contrary), but that the school has no organized program of study for the student as a future consumer, as a buyer of specific goods in an industrial and commercial civilization that can outwit him at every turn. In this latter respect the complainants are justified. In Michigan the high school principals'

most recent convention took up the problem of consumer education. In the smaller cities the authorities have begun to look around for courses of study and for texts. To be sure, there is considerable evidence that consumer education in one form or another is on the horizon. It is not a fad or a frill. It is a tremendous reality.

Consumer education, in organized or disorganized form, is more or less available in almost every school. For at least three decades we have had courses in domestic science. Although the course originally confined itself to cooking, there is no doubt that it developed practical consumers of a great many household articles—pots and pans as well as food-stuffs. Our sewing classes had to discuss materials from their very

inception. Today the sewing courses use textile texts which give a very adequate training in textile construction, methods of judging textiles, methods of caring for textiles and textile testing. Such students as have followed the course with any degree of success are capable of distinguishing accurately between silk and rayon, wool and wool mixtures, cotton and wool, and so on. They have a knowledge of the fundamentals of workmanship and style. But only a small percentage of our young folks take sewing.

Our homemaking courses are another source of consumer education. Again, although the stress may be on the care and maintenance of the home and on phases of home economics, the training of the consumer occupies almost half of the time. A knowledge of foods, sheets, glassware, china and other home needs is essential for the homemaker. She must not only use these, but she must also buy them. The courses where homemaking becomes synonymous with maid-work are few and dwindling. In general, we can say that homemaking and home economics courses have a secure foundation in consumer education. But not all young people take home economics, and not all schools have courses in this field.

Our hygiene and health education courses, our biology, physics and chemistry courses are contributing their share to consumer edu-

cation. Most of the knowledge of young people of patent medicines, cosmetics and common home appliances that involve chemical and physical properties and characteristics that make them good examples for classroom study, is derivable from one course or another in the sciences. Years ago practical applications were not quite so popular as they are now. The most recent texts in the field are illustrated with oil burners, refrigerators and vacuum cleaners as much as with electroplating apparatus, barometers and soap-making machinery. Science courses are working strongly in the direction of consumer science education. But ultimately this course cannot devote itself entirely to consumer training. There are too many scientific principles that can never mean much in the purchase of goods. And they must be taught.

Merchandising courses have, in recent years, included courses in Textiles and the so-called Non-textiles as introductory to salesmanship, on the theory that salesmanship requires a knowledge of goods. Such courses are not yet widespread in our schools despite their merit in the training of salespeople. There are a great many schools which have not initiated such courses because of a fear of the ultimate values in merchandising. In some of the schools where such courses have been initiated the encouragement for growth has been negligible. That the courses

in Textiles and Non-textiles may become forces in consumer education is not to be denied. The obvious difficulty is the stimulation of adequate interest in merchandising among too great a number of students. Merchandising activities absorb some but not too many of our students. The "slant" given these courses by a teacher interested in merchandising may not be best for the consumer.

The schools give a tremendous amount of consumer information in the form of asides by teachers in economics, in marketing, in advertising, in industrial history, in economics, in marketing, in the book reports submitted by students of these courses are on the very popular works of Kallett, Schlink, Chase, and others. Even the most conservative volumes of professors of marketing contain powerfully worded passages, backed up with facts, of interest, to say the least, to consumers.

The conclusion that we are driven to after a cursory study of consumer education in the schools is that we have plenty of it without adding another course. And yet anyone familiar with the problems of consumer education will point out that because there is not *organization for consumer education* we are failing to achieve anything substantial. Without an organized course of study with goals and aims and objectives of a strictly consumer nature, replete with fact and application, practical

and broad, there is no consumer education.

At the Michigan conference a few problems were discussed that might well be our problems:

1. How is Consumer Education being used in curriculum development?

2. What are the unexplored possibilities in this field?

3. What are the obstacles to appropriate expansion?

4. What is the relationship of this field to the development of the field as a whole?

Any one of these problems is a topic for a long series of articles. And anything less than a few pages will boil down to ex cathedra remarks of no immediate value. But here are the crucial questions. They imply that there is a conflict on the place of Consumer Education in the curriculum. Shall it stand by itself or shall it be integrated with a series of courses? The best pedagogical opinions will probably veer towards the latter view. They imply that in our present state of research on the matter we are in no position to say that consumer education includes this and excludes that. Furthermore, we have no rounded and acceptable philosophy of consumer education that possesses sound practical values for material living. They imply that there are influences opposed to the development of consumer education. Those influences may be from within the educational system

as well as from without. Within the educational system we have a collection of viewpoints antagonistic to the inclusion of such a course, varying from a stress on academic subjects to a resentment of the intrusion of new-fangled ideas. Without, are a few powerful business interests, probably not the majority, opposed to consumer education from sheer fear.

To these problems may be added the problem of teaching the subject. There is considerable dispute as to whether teachers of science or teachers of commercial subjects are more suitable. One thing is certain—the science teacher without adequate training in distribution is as inadequately prepared as the commercial teacher without adequate training in the sciences. Both types are very common at present because collegiate training is so strongly compartmentalized. In addition, there is the problem of materials. Although the materials for such a course are not costly, they require considerable patience to accumulate. Five thousand samples of textiles can be

accumulated in a year, but the patience and organization required is endless. Incidentally, they need not cost a penny. A new methodology has to be developed for such a course and there is practically no one equipped to supply the methodology.

Given a fairly satisfactory course of study, fairly satisfactory instruction can be offered for experimental purposes by an energetic teacher who is familiar with physics, chemistry and biology, as well as advertising, retailing and marketing. Given a basic training in the former, the latter may be acquired by intensive reading. Given a basic training in the latter, the sciences become a more serious problem and probably require much course-taking and study. There is available a text-book in consumer goods and there are many fine reference volumes in the average high school library. The course below, in the form of lesson topics, was devised for a one year course. It is used in the greater part at Newtown High School.

TERM I

Unit 1—*The Material Foundations of Modern Life*

1. Why it is necessary to be familiar with Consumer Goods.
2. How Consumer Goods must be studied to make the knowledge useful.
3. The general methods of judging Consumer Goods.

Unit 2—*Fibers, Yarns and Cloth*

1. The properties and characteristics of the major fibers.
2. Spinning and weaving.
3. The plain weave.

4. The twill weave.
5. The satin weave.
6. The figure weave.
7. The pile, double cloth, lappet, gauze and swivel weaves.
8. Knitting and knit goods (hosiery and underwear).
9. The identification of the weaves from samples.
10. Finding the count of cloth by means of the pick glass or thread counter.
11. Testing the strength of the materials.

Unit 3—*Cotton Goods*

1. The characteristics, varieties and uses of cotton goods.
2. From the seed to the cloth.
3. Bleaching and dyeing cotton fabrics, The Fade-O-Meter, The Launder-O-Meter.
4. Testing for the quality of the dye.
5. Printing cottons and other types of surface decorations.
6. Mercerizing, napping, calendaring, sanforizing and the lisle finish.
7. Judging and testing cotton.
8. Sizing and laboratory tests for sizing.
9. The identification of cotton fabrics.
10. The identification of cotton fabrics.
11. The identification of cotton fabrics.
12. The laboratory comparisons and tests of commonly used dress fabrics.
13. Judging shirts, sheets, pillow cases, house dresses, and other cotton products.

Unit 4—*Linen*

1. The characteristics, properties and uses of linen.
2. From the seed to the cloth.
3. Laboratory lesson, judging and testing linens.
4. The identifications of linens commonly used.
5. Laboratory lesson—comparison of cotton and linen.
6. Laboratory lesson—judging linen tablecloths, handkerchiefs, dresses and other linen products.
7. Laces.
8. The identification of commonly used laces.

Unit 5—*Wool*

1. The characteristics, properties and uses of wool.
2. From the sheep to the cloth.
3. A comparison of woolens and worsteds.

4. Judging and testing woolen fabrics.
5. The identification of commonly used wool fabrics.
6. Laboratory lesson—judging, testing and comparing wool fabrics.
7. Felt—characteristics, properties, methods of judging and care.
8. Blankets—characteristics, methods of judging and care.
9. Rugs—methods of making.
10. Rugs—identification and methods of judging.
11. Clothes of wool—methods of judging (suits, coats, skirts and sweaters).

Unit 6—Silk

1. The characteristics, properties, and uses of silk.
2. From the cocoon to the cloth.
3. Weighting—tests for the methods of detecting.
4. The identification of silk fabrics.
5. Testing for silk.
6. Laboratory comparisons of silk, cotton, linen and wool.
7. Judging dresses, ties, underwear, hosiery and other commonly used silk goods.

Unit 7—Man-Made Fibers

1. The four methods of making the new fibers.

Unit 8—The Minor Fibers

1. Characteristics, properties and identification of ramie, jute and coir.
2. Characteristics, properties and identification of kapok, hemp, straw, pineapple fiber.
3. Characteristics, properties and identification of llama, cashmere, horsehair, metallic fibers.
4. Characteristics, properties and identification of camelhair, alpaca, and vicuna.
5. Asbestos and rock wool from the point of view of insulation.

Unit 9—The Care of All Types of Textiles

1. The general care of all textiles.
2. Care of personal clothing of all types—suits, coats, dresses, ties, sheets, hosiery, and other commonly used textiles.
3. Care of upholstery fabrics, rugs, mattresses and household goods.
4. Stains and their removal.
5. Laboratory lesson on the effect of washing with various soaps and laundry concoctions on textile fabrics.

Unit 10—Furs

1. An analysis of fur.
2. From the animal's back to the finished fur.

3. Identification of the weasels—ermine, mink, kolinsky, fitch, wolverine and otter.
4. Identification of the weasels—skunk, badger, sable, fisher.
5. Identification of the dogs—wolf, red fox, silver fox.
6. Identification of the dogs—black, cross, white, blue, kit and gray.
7. Identification of the cats—leopard, ocelot, lynx, civet.
8. Identification of the water rats—beaver, muskrat, nutria.
9. Identification of the land rats—squirrel, marmot, burunduki, chinchilla, rabbit, hare.
10. Identification of the hoofed animals—Persian lamb, broadtail, krimmer, goat, kid, galyak.
11. Identification of the opossum, seal, mole, monkey, bear, raccoon.
12. Judging and testing furs.
13. The care of furs.
14. Fur imitations.
15. Buying a raccoon, a mink, a silver fox, lapin and other commonly used furs. Laboratory lesson.

SECOND TERM

Unit 11—Leather

1. The origin, characteristics and uses for leather.
2. From the animal's back to the finished leather.
3. The major tans.
4. The identification of cowhide, calfskin, goatskin and kidskin.
5. The identification of sheep, horse, kangaroo, elk and pig.
6. The identification of alligator, snake, lizard, shark, walrus.
7. The identification of suede and patent leather.
8. The structure of the shoe.
9. The common type of shoes—welt, McKay, turned, Littleway, stitch-down and cement.
10. Buying shoes and caring for them; laboratory lesson.
11. Buying gloves.
12. Buying handbags.
13. Buying luggage.
14. Buying leather jackets.
15. Judging leather and imitations; laboratory lesson.

Unit 12—Wood Products

1. The characteristics and properties of woods.
2. The characteristics of good furniture.
3. Furniture styles: Renaissance, Tudor, Jacobean, William and Mary, Queen Anne.
4. Furniture styles, the Georgians.

5. Furniture styles: the French Louis types, Empire Directoire.
6. Furniture styles, the American.
7. Furniture styles, Modern.
8. Identification of the commonly used woods; laboratory lesson.
9. Judging commonly used articles—wood-parquet floors, kitchen articles, tool handles.
10. Judging the structure of a frame house.

Unit 13—*Paper*

1. From tree or rag to paper.
2. Kinds of paper.
3. Judging stationery, wallpaper, and paper toweling; laboratory lesson.

Unit 14—*Rubber*

1. The characteristics, properties and manufacture of rubber.
2. Judging a tire; care of tires.
3. Judging rubber footwear.
4. Rubber clothing, its selection and hygiene.
5. Rubber goods commonly used in the home; laboratory lesson.

Unit 15—*Glass*

1. From sand to glass.
2. Kinds of glass and the desired features in each.
3. The decoration of glass.
4. Buying and judging glassware.
5. Buying and judging other types of glass—window panes, mirrors, and commonly used household glass goods.

Unit 16—*China*

1. From clay to china or earthenware.
2. Decorating chinaware.
3. Buying and judging chinaware.
4. Table setting.
5. The care of glassware and chinaware, flower pots and similar household articles.

Unit 17—*Metals*

1. From the earth to the finished steel.
2. From the earth to aluminum, tin, lead, zinc, and alloys.
3. Buying, judging and caring for kitchen utensils.
4. Buying, judging and caring for house needs, plumbing, kitchen and bath room fixtures, electric lighting, fixtures, hardware, screening.
5. Buying, judging and caring for electric irons, ironers, ranges, wash-

- ing machines, refrigerators, vacuum cleaners.
6. Buying, judging and caring for radios.
7. Buying, judging and caring for automobiles.
8. Buying, judging and caring for commonly used metal gadgets, can openers, toys, egg-beaters.

Unit 18—*Gold, Silver and Platinum*

1. From the earth to the finished metal.
2. Workmanship in the precious metals.
3. Buying, judging and caring for gold articles.
4. Buying, judging and caring for silverware.
5. Platinum and pewter.

Unit 19—*Stones*

1. The identification of the precious and less precious stones.
2. The use of costume jewelry.

Unit 20—*Oils*

1. From the earth to the product of the refinery.
2. Oil and the automobile—a lesson in gasoline and lubrication.
3. Oil and the oil burner—Diesel engine, kerosene lamp.
4. Buying, using and caring for the vegetable and animal oils.
5. Buying, and using the essential oils and perfumes.

Unit 21—*Paints and Varnishes*

1. What is in paint and what does each do for the surface to be painted?
2. Stains, varnishes, shellacs, enamels, and lacquers—their use.
3. The paint job—figuring, painting and brushes.

Unit 22—*Cosmetics*

1. Powders, creams, lotions, nail polishes—their use and abuse.
2. Rouge, lipstick, hair preparations, beauty assistants—their use and dangers.
3. Hygiene and cosmetics—the use of toothbrush and soap and water.
4. The restrained use of cosmetics; laboratory lesson.

Unit 23—*Foods*

1. The requirements of the human body—a study of proteins, fats, carbohydrates.
2. Food legislation.
3. The grains—barley, oats, rice, rye, wheat; origin and food values of each.
4. Breakfast cereals, flours and baked goods, evaluating each.

5. Meat in the diet, cuts of meat, food values.
6. Buying and judging meat and poultry; government standards.
7. Dairy products—their food value and place in the diet.
8. Buying butter, cheese, milk, cream, ice cream; government standards.
9. Buying, judging and caring for eggs.
10. Buying, judging and caring for fresh fish; food value of fish.
11. Buying, judging and caring for canned fish; government standards.
12. Buying, judging and caring for fresh vegetables.
13. Buying and judging canned fruits and vegetables; government standards.
14. Buying and judging fresh fruit and fruit juices.
15. Buying and judging beverages.
16. Buying foods wisely and economically.

Unit 24—*Investments*

1. Insurance, life and related policies.
2. Insurance, fire and similar policies.
3. Stocks and bonds, loan societies, interest, dividends.
4. Real estate.

Unit 25—*The Budget*

1. How to make a budget—constituents, proportions, savings insurance.
2. Consumer organization.
3. The well-rounded material life—what is it?

EDWARD REICH.

Newtown High School.

MOVE YOUR DEADWOOD!

Half-hidden by the rows and rows of books that adorn the shelves of your school library there rests many a sepulchre of literary hearts and brains—books whose pages no longer see the light of day. Their covers are drab, their titles are obscured, their top edges are grimy with dust, and their whole bodies reek of the odor of the tomb. Daily they witness their brighter offspring's gay wanderings in and out of the library in the hands of happy students, but they remain, another monument to

man's inhumanity. Year after year these prematurely aged books accumulate, to the despair of the librarian and the derision of the students.

"Throw them out," the theorist shouts. "Let us have books that earn their keep by circulation. The efficiency of a library is not judged by the number of books it circulates but by the fewness of the books that remain on its shelves, considered proportionately. Preserve their illustrations in the pamphlet collection, if you will, but discard

these books that have outlived their usefulness."

The realist, more mindful of limited budgets and the strict accounting that must be made, reminds us, "But there is much of inestimable value in these books you speak of, priceless words that cannot be duplicated, knowledge that is the foundation of today's education, ideals that can inspire where inspiration is needed—no, many of these books will be here when your ephemeral writings of today are vanished."

But neither theorist nor realist does anything to remedy the situation; one looks forward to the time when he will have the authority to "clean out" the library, while the other hopes for the day when these step-children books will come into their own again. In the meantime, our school libraries, guided either by theory or actuality, continue to stuff their shelves with unused books. Fortunately, however, something can be done about it, and it is up to us librarians and library-minded teachers to do that something. Conscious of his obligation, the writer has developed a plan which has produced results when used in a modified form, and which has proved that something can be done. "The Nuggetteers" (or "The Treasure Hunters," or "Research Assistants," or whatever name seems suitable) is a club composed, in the beginning, of upper termers who are library-minded like

their director, who through some process of osmosis have acquired the habit of browsing among books and libraries, seeking ever new nuggets of knowledge to wonder at and new flashes of inspiration to thrill to. And these students are not as scarce as we may think; one needs only to observe a free-reading period in the library or to ask for volunteers to do some library research. The results will be gratifying indeed. Some other qualifications that are not so essential are imagination, skimming ability, writing ability, artistic ability, and, for the group as a whole, as wide a class coverage as possible. A small active club of five to ten members can be more effective, especially in a small library, than a large group, whose work will probably duplicate and impede progress.

The primary aim is to bring to the attention of the students and the teachers the value and pleasure that can be obtained from these library books that are seldom used. The "Nuggetteers" will be the miners of the gold that lies hidden underneath the covers of the dusty volumes. They will be panners in the stream of literature, and when they have found a nugget of worth they will hold it aloft for all to admire—and desire. Three plans of attack, not mutually exclusive, are possible, the club and the director to choose the best fitting one or to correlate the three into a unified system that will cover the

school adequately.

The interests of the research workers is naturally the best basis for dividing the work: those whose main interest is in Science or Shop will concentrate on the Useful Arts section of the library; those with English as a hobby, the Literature section; History addicts, the History and Biography sections; and so on. Nor should reference books be overlooked; each research worker, in addition to his special section, should keep abreast of the bibliographies that are supplied by encyclopaedias, readers' guides, and other general reference books. A group of seven or eight does well with this plan.

The second plan, which is advisable only for a school with adequate library facilities (alas, how few there are!), schedules the research according to the subject or homeroom classes the club members happen to be in at the time. Satisfactorily to cover the school this way requires a large group—ideally, a research worker for each class; but modifications are possible if the workers are in the more advanced grades of the subjects or so distributed as to have one worker at least from each term. The subject division presupposes special interests; the term division, general library interest.

When research workers are few in number, the third plan will accomplish the purpose of the group effectively, and perhaps more to the satisfaction of the librarian

who has despaired of certain "treasures" that have not moved for years. To these few the librarian will point out what books these "treasures" are, and then leave the "marketing" problem in the hands of the designated worker.

Whichever way your group is organized, the attack is essentially the same: to find in these unused books the nugget of information that will tie up with and lend interest to the classroom work of particular classes, departments, teachers, students, and clubs in any way whatsoever, the more appealingly the better. Therefore, the first problem is one of discovery; the enthusiasm and energy of the research worker is the backbone. The research worker must be wide-awake to the trends of the various courses that he is interested in; he must keep his eyes and ears open to the possibilities that lie about him; he must be a Keats, first reading Chapman's Homer.

The creative minds, those who have writing or artistic ability—or, as it probably will work out, the creative sides of the same research workers—next dress up the material for appeal. An advertisement from the *Saturday Evening Post*, a cartoon from a newspaper, a sketch, a rhyme, a word, a sign, all these and more, with the name and call number of the book added, pasted and printed on oak-tag or colored drawing paper—these are some ways to meet the problem that each book presents.

The "Nuggetteers" are an advertising agency, pure and simple, with the same problems and the same solutions, and always two steps ahead of the prospective customers. The actual contact comes when the prepared material is affixed to bulletin boards, presented in memo or letter form to teachers and leaders, or made a part of oral reports in class- or homerooms—or when the book is actually brought into class and exhibited.

A few case histories will shed further light on the process. Not one of the books had been loaned for at least two years previous to the "build-up" by the "Nuggetteers."

1. A History class, involved in a debate as to the relative difficulty of maintaining a family under present economic conditions, were ready prospects for S. E. Forman's "Sidelights on Our Social and Economic History" (acquired in 1929, but not once out of the library!). The research assistant referred the class to the book, and the next day brought it to class and read selected passages.

2. "A Tall Tale" was written up for the school newspaper, describing the big blue ox, "Babe," of Paul Bunyan fame. "Babe," the story read, was seven axehandles wide between the eyes—or, as some say, forty-two axehandles and a plug of tobacco. Just for a snack between meals he'd eat fifty bales of hay, wire and all, and

keep six men armed with picaroons busy picking the wire out of his teeth. Why, once a man and his family fell into one of the tracks made by "Babe's" hoof and—After these and a few other inviting bits, the article ended abruptly and referred the reader to the school library and Albert B. Hart's "In Our Times V," the call number being given. In no time the book was drawn from the library and continued to be drawn for the rest of the term.

3. A colored illustration from the *Saturday Evening Post* exactly fitted one research worker's idea for a poster on the ducking-stool. He titled it "Curious Punishments of Bygone Days," which was the name of his "problem" book, and added a little squib to the effect that "Stool-ducking was only one of the curious punishments of old New England. Here are some others that are guaranteed to give you thrills and chills: The Bilboes, The Stocks, The Pillory, The Whipping Post, The Scarlet Letter, Branding and Maiming—if you read Alice Earle's "Curious Punishments of Bygone Days." As usual, the call number was given. That book, which had not been taken out of the library for at least three years (accurate records were not available) became one of the term's "best sellers."

4. "All language is poetry," offered one of the researchers in a Poetry class. When asked what he

meant, he referred to Greenough and Kittredge's "Words and Their Ways in English Speech." At the teacher's request, he read from it in class the next day, not neglecting to mention some of the other chapter headings.

Few as they are, it will be seen from these examples what possibilities there are for an energetic group of Nuggetteers to do exceptional service work in the school, service to the librarian by getting the step-child books into circulation, service to the teachers by providing interesting sidelights and pertinent materials for their courses, and service to the students by opening up the real treasures that lie untouched before their very eyes. The greatest good, however, is to the research worker himself, who, thwarted by the authoritarian ideal of education, finds the true ideal that gives him limitless pleas-

ure and profit—the ideal of research.

A brief outline:
Plan of Procedure:

1. According to members' interests.
2. According to subject or home-room classes.
3. According to the librarian's informal plan.

Methods of Appeal:

1. Posters.
2. Articles or regular columns in the school newspaper.
3. Memos or letters to teachers and leaders detailing bibliographies or pertinent material.
4. Exhibiting books in subject classes and reading therefrom.
5. Informal references in classroom lessons.
6. Assembly programs on "Forgotten Treasures."

JAMES J. ANDERSON.
Bushwick High School.

SHALL WE TEACH TO TEST — or TEST TO TEACH?

Secondary mathematics is being attacked on all sides. Children, anticipating failure, refuse to accept it as part of their programs. Administrators, finding a diminishing number of requests for it, and concentrating their efforts upon courses more easily absorbed, and, hence, more popular, devote less and less of the school program to mathematics. School systems, following suit, declare present teachers of mathematics in excess and

refuse to hire additional ones. Why? What is the cause of this scourge?

In an effort to discover the cause and to remedy it, the teachers of mathematics are looking to their aims and objectives; they are examining their methods and procedures, their techniques and instruments of teaching, the possible points of correlation and integration with other courses, the possible points of fusion within math-

ematics itself, and extra-curricular methods of stimulating interest in mathematics. All these instruments and techniques are being investigated with an eye to the source of the trouble. But have we looked to our tests, those hurdles, the jumping of which is the immediate cause of the failure, and, hence, the immediate cause of the vicious sequence?

The Tests and Measurements Committee of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics has undertaken, as its first problem, a study of the tests that we use. It is hoped that the material and philosophies which we shall unearth and bring to light shall bear this fruit; namely, that tests in mathematics shall become instruments of teaching and not tools of torture. Who knows but that such a change in techniques and procedures might lead to a lower rate of mortality—an end devoutly to be wished.

HOW DO YOU MAKE A TEST?

You have finished a unit in geometry, Book III, for example.

¹This is the first of a series of articles to be presented by the Tests and Measurements Committee, and its title may be considered as a subtitle, for the separate articles of this series shall all deal with the phases of the problem, "Shall We Teach to Test, or Test to Teach?" The chairman gratefully acknowledges the contributions made to this article by Mrs. Kate Pankin, Flushing High School, Mr. David Roslow, Stuyvesant High School, and Mr. Abraham Resnick, Boys High School, members of the committee.

You have taught it as carefully as possible. You have reviewed and drilled. You have correlated and integrated. Now it is time to test. Why?

Are we testing to get marks for our records? If not, why do we use them as we do? If so, why do we not make a conscious effort to equate our marks so that one teacher is not "an easy marker" when another is "a hard marker"?

Are we testing to punish or correct? If to punish, are we justified? If to correct, how do we use the test score to this end?

And, finally, how do we know what our test is testing? How do we know whether the test is hard because the students are dull, or because the test questions are poorly worded?

How do we know the value of our tests?

HOW DO WE MAKE OUR TESTS?

Mr. Phenomenal Teacher spends hours preparing questions to test the unit just completed. He wants to include every idea covered so that none may claim, "You covered only the two or three points that I did not get; I got everything else." He words and rewords problems to be certain that the intent of each question is clear. He makes his questions as objective as the material will permit. He does not set an arbitrary passing mark, but, instead, marks his test on a point scale; he grants one point for

each step in the thinking process, and, after all the papers have been scored, he ranks his papers and determines a suitable passing percentage. Then he works out the percent equivalents for each of the point scores. In addition to planning for all this, he doubtless cuts a stencil (laboriously) and mimeographs the test personally.

What may happen then?

Despite his efforts to the contrary, a typographical error may creep in. He may correct it personally, by writing the correction on each paper, consuming a good deal of his time thereby, or he may note the corrections on the blackboard, which wastes the pupils' test time and may disturb them emotionally, too.

As he marks his papers according to the point method described above, he may find that his pet question, the one which he was certain tested one specific function, had, in fact, a wide variety of solutions; he may find that it is possible to answer this question without touching on the topic which he intended to test. In other words, his pet question turns out to be ambiguous, but neither he nor his colleagues, whom he consulted, realized the ambiguity because, perhaps, their mental sets caused them to see the solution which fitted into the teaching pattern.

Mr. Phenomenal Teacher may feel that the question can be eliminated, but is this fair to those who

did see the question through their teacher's eyes? Is it fair to those who saw another solution? What is fair?

Then, after an eternity, this phenomenal teacher translates his points into percents. What does he do with the marks? The chances are that he records them in his book and returns them to the pupils in disgust. He is too tired now to analyze the scores, and too exhausted to plan remedial work. He is too tired, and still he has failed.

Why has he failed?

How could he have saved time and energy and have been more successful, too?

How could ambiguity and error have been definitely avoided?

What has Mr. Average Teacher done? He has taken five problems for the test, choosing them largely because he had not covered them in class and had not assigned them for homework. He writes the questions on the blackboard. He grants them twenty points each with little or no regard to their actual comparative difficulties.

What may happen?

While his back is turned, as he is writing question three, a group of students may be attacking number one cooperatively.

It may also develop that no one has finished at the bell because one of the problems involved a rather more complicated diagram than the teacher anticipated. The pupils who drew the right diagram imme-

diately lost little time on the problem; those who drew less accurately may have wasted several minutes in floundering.

A good student may fail because ideas which were stressed in the homework and in class, and which he therefore studied, were not stressed in these problems.

A poor student who is fortunate enough to have a friend in another class where two of these five problems had been assigned for homework by another teacher may also be fortunate enough to remember the key to the solution. He will be forty points ahead of his classmates. Is he forty points better, or forty points luckier?

The average teacher may find that a great number of his marks fall below the sacred sixty-five. Why? What recourse has he?

Mr. Average Teacher may disregard the marks because of the number of failures, hoping to avoid personal disgrace thereby, but does he know the cause of these failures? Will he be able to avoid the failures next time? Then, on the other hand, he may record the marks stoically muttering, "The compulsory education law..."

But what does he do to understand the causes of the failure? Nothing.

Add to these two the host of those who give easy tests deliberately to bolster their own records, or give hard tests to foster their egos as mathematicians at the ex-

pense of their pride as teachers. What justification is there for their philosophies and consequent techniques? How do their tests aid their teaching?

A test is valuable and worth the time spent on it if and only if it is an instrument of teaching. Its score must be recorded, yes. But once recorded, it must have an invariant significance; 70% today must mean the same amount of achievement as 70% in the same course next term; 90% in my class must mean the same degree of excellence as 90% in your class. Variations in significance have wrought havoc. We have no moral right deliberately to set our standards above or below the average for the community.

A score must be recorded quantitatively, but it must be analyzed qualitatively for remedial purposes. Unless the test shows wherein the teacher and the pupil have failed to attain their common goal, it has been no test, but, instead, a hurdle. Unless the teacher makes a conscious effort to point out the deficiencies and to remedy them, he is no teacher, but an arbitrary demi-god.

What can we do to improve our tests? How can we know what we are testing? How can we interpret test scores? How can we use our tests as instruments of teaching?

The Tests and Measurements Committee of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics is planning to make an extensive and in-

tensive study of this problem.² If we can see some way together to overcome the difficulties, deficiencies and dangers of our pernicious test habits, we may, perhaps, solve the problem of the mathematics teacher in excess.

²Our committee plans to bring to your attention in a subsequent article some of the outstanding results of work done to remedy the evils mentioned above.

A PRACTICAL PLAN FOR THE CIVICS TEACHER IN VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS

The Vocational High School presents a problem for the teacher of civics and history which is not often found in the Academic High School.

The vocational school pupil is less interested in the concepts and functions of government than the more intellectually minded academic pupil. To the former, active citizenship and good government is of secondary importance. His interests lead to the mechanical world. Active citizenship and mechanics seem to be dissociated. To connect both is the vocational teacher's first problem.

In the course of this report, I shall attempt to describe my program and my findings. My experiment was carried on with first and second year pupils at the Manhattan High School of Aviation Trades.

Here, the first and second year

Standards need not be lowered, necessarily, to make mathematics more popular; it may be only that standards need to be set.

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Association of Teachers
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George Washington High School.

pupil pursues a course in community civics and economic citizenship which covers a longer period than that covered in the academic and commercial high school. He spends one full year in the community civics class and another in the economic citizenship class.

The civics teacher must cover the same syllabus as the academic high school civics teacher. The curriculum, however, provides a three period per week class program instead of the four or five period class program in the latter type schools.

At Aviation Trades, the civics teacher has a teaching program which includes from ten to eleven classes. The teacher's energy must be conserved and interest maintained for both pupil and teacher. During the past year, I have attempted through the following program, to solve my problems and

attain the aforesaid goals. The "civics class" should be attractive and educational rather than cut and dried, boring and unimportant.

THE PROGRAM

The class program is divided into three units: the Recitation period, the Current Events period, and the Council period. A fixed day is set for each. These periods are changed only at the discretion of the teacher, or when exigencies demand it.

The recitation period is spent in covering the units of the syllabus. Written homework is assigned for the following recitation period one week hence. The pupil may use his own text, if he has one, a library book, or any other source obtainable. Working in teams is encouraged.

The written lesson is checked and marked religiously to insure diligence. This method corresponds with the shop teacher's check-up on completed jobs. The pupils are led to expect this check-up. This check-up takes place while they are busy copying the new assignment from the board.

If the lesson deals with a unit of government, or the functions thereof, we have personal experiences to draw from in our own Council. The Council always serves as the basis for comparisons and examples. The actions of the Municipal Assembly, the State Legis-

lature, and Congress are made real and vital.

The current events period could easily be spent in idling away time. This would prove utterly boring. To overcome this possibility the manner of presentation has been made attractive and varied.

The pupil has a choice of presentation which takes care of poor, bright and normal pupil alike. The first choice we call "Clippings." A newspaper report, magazine article, photograph, or illustration may be taken. It must be pasted on the page, given a suitable title and labelled. Then the pupil is compelled to indicate the source to insure accuracy and truth, to give his own description or explanation of the contents, and finally, his own comments. If he fails to comment, the article is judged to be unimportant. To date, this method has proved quite satisfactory.

The second choice is known as "News Flashes." Pupils present short written accounts of current events in the press-radio manner. This method has proved popular with all groups. The choice of topics, however, is limited to the following fields: (1) Aviation; (2) Domestic News; (3) Foreign News; (4) Sports; (5) Human Interest Stories.

Rarerly does a pupil fail to read an account on the latest aviation events. It is so close to his chief interests that I sometimes have all

I can do to prevent the accounts from being "purely aviation."

Pupils vie with each other for the privilege of reading their accounts to the class. Some exercise initiative and include "commercials."

Last Spring, one class undertook to present a dramatic version of the Texas School Disaster. One bright pupil wrote a script, deriving his "lines" from newspaper and radio accounts. He imitated the March of Time program. He was permitted to choose his own cast of characters and coach them. On Current Events Day, the class appeared with a makeshift microphone and a screen. The author acted as commentator. *Mirabile dictu*, the effect was beyond criticism. One could hear the running, the falling and frightened whimpering of one of the characters, the excited account of this character in reply to a reporter's queries, varied descriptions by spectators.

The third choice is called "Most Important News of the Week." Only the truly bright pupils choose this method. It serves as an outlet for their argumentative abilities.

To prevent the pupils from falling into a rut I often insist that some change their choices. During the reading of the accounts, some of the boys invite criticism and comments and this provokes lively debates and discussions. These discussions are allowed to run their course. No business is left unfinished. Further research is motiv-

ated as a result of unsettled arguments. The assignments are fixed for the term and all news events are confined to a weekly period.

The Council is the "pièce de résistance." One period per week is set aside as council period. These councils have become by-words among the civics classes. The school newspaper, the "Sat Log," has given publicity to individual councils.

Briefly, it is a self activity period. At the beginning of the term each class is permitted to organize a council. The organizations and officers are the same in nature. Each council elects a president, vice-president, and recording secretary. The latter is usually a volunteer who is approved by a majority of the council.

Each council is divided into committees. The committees vary according to the interests of the respective groups. Among them are committees on Aviation, Sports, School Improvements, Sight Seeing, Model Building, Hobbies, Press, Public Relations, and so forth. Chairmen are chosen by the president and every member of the council is expected to become a member of at least one committee.

Only a few councils have adopted sets of by-laws. Some councils have adopted rules for procedure and by-laws as a result of disputes and disciplinary difficulties, others because they wished to write their own constitutions.

Each committee chairman is re-

sponsible for the active participation of his members. The laggards are called to account and sometimes requested to join new committees to suit their interests.

Minutes of each meeting are kept by the respective recording secretaries. A clear picture of the proceedings can readily be drawn from the following excerpts of the minutes which I have borrowed from several secretaries.

CONSTITUTION OF COUNCIL

Article I—Officers

1. All officers must be elected by a majority vote of the assembled council.
2. All officers who wish to resign must do so in writing. Definite reasons must be given.
3. In case of absence of the president, the vice-president will act as chairman.
4. If members of committees are not satisfied with their chairmen, they may remove them only by majority vote of their committee.
5. If members of the council are dissatisfied with the presiding officer, they may remove him by a two-third vote. Reasons for removal must be sufficient.
6. The president, or presiding officer, shall have the power to appoint and dismiss all chairmen and members for offenses to the class council.

Article II—Court

1. In the case of a major offense, a court with a judge and jury will be appointed by the president with the approval of all committee chairmen and a trial will be held.
2. The defendant will be permitted to choose a defense attorney.
3. An officer may be recalled only after he has served five weeks.
4. Court will be held for not more than two weeks nor less than one week (Council periods only).

Article III—Procedures

1. Persons submitting articles about classmates must have them approved by the chairman of committee before presentation.
2. Minutes for each meeting will be read by the secretary at the following meeting.
3. Members who are given the floor for a speech must be given the same respect as the president. Violations of this rule are subject to punishment.
4. The meeting of the council can be adjourned only after the proposal had been made and seconded.
5. The president may conduct the meeting in any manner he thinks suitable.
6. The teacher will serve as sergeant-at-arms. He is requested to impose any penalty within the discretion of the council.

7. If any member does not present at least one article or report a month, he will be subject to a penalty to be imposed by the president.

Article IV—Offenses

1. Use of vile language.
2. Talking out of turn after being warned repeatedly.
3. During committee reports there will be no comments, disturbances or interruptions whatever. Time will be allowed for discussion.
4. Any article which the council disapproves may not be presented again unless it has special permission of the council officers.
5. The president will calendar all committee reports in rotation.

The following excerpts are taken from the minutes of my official class, a second year group.

"3A4 Council Meeting

Oct. 5, 1937

Officers: Pres., Mr. Gross

V.-P., Mr. Nicolaci

Sec'y., Mr. Scandinaro

Asst., Mr. Parascondola

The weekly council meeting of class 3A4 was held on Oct. 5, 1937, presided over by our president.

After reading the minutes of the previous meeting, we turned to the old business. First, athletics received our attention. We were extremely disappointed to hear that Mr. Lukoshevsky, a member of the sports committee, was not adequately prepared to inform us

about our school swimming team. Handball claimed our attention but Mr. Gross and Mr. Shapiro of the Handball Team reported that handball news would be discontinued until the opening of the season next term. Old business was closed on a motion by Mr. Stern. Motion was duly seconded.

New business: Mr. Schweit suggested that our committees be more alert and that chairmen of committees take an active part in the gathering of news for our meetings. Mr. Scuto amended this suggestion by stating that each committee be given a definite assignment in order to assure us that committees would bring in the required work.

The obtaining of school emblems was then discussed and Mr. Floyd took this opportunity to describe the fencing club and its work. A creditable discourse on the rise of the track team was given by Mr. Kambourian.

Mr. Gross urged us to maintain our excellent reputation during the coming term. An appeal to avoid carelessness was made.

The meeting closed at the sound of the bell on a motion by Mr. Placek. Motion was seconded and dismissed by Mr. Gross.

Respectfully,

PATSY SCANDINARO, Sec'y."

To acquaint the reader with the topics of discussion I have selected samplings from other minutes.

Oct. 19. "Mr. Schweit, Mr. Scuto and Mr. Hirsch read some

interesting and entertaining articles about aviation. The plight of the bulletin board was brought up by Chairman Placek. He seemed very much put out by the lack of cooperation shown him.

Our acquaintance with the new business at hand was very limited as all the time was taken up by Mr. Gross' discourse concerning a social club which he hopes to establish in the class and thereby set a precedent for the school as a whole."

Oct. 26. "The only representative of the Aviation Committee to make a report was Mr. Scuto who gave a meritorious dissertation on Aerial Photography.

Mr. Perniciaro of the Log Committee reported that our class made an excellent showing by having everybody purchase the SAT Log."

Nov. 9 "Aviation Committee: No news reported except the fact that the school has received a plane from Mitchell Field for repair work. It is a 'Hell Diver'."

Nov. 16. "Mr. Kambourian of the Sports Committee reported that our swimming team won a victory over Metropolitan Vocational High School.

Mr. Scuto made a motion that a scroll be presented to the boys who attained the best scholarship record and attendance record. Motion was discussed, seconded and

unanimously approved. A committee was appointed to frame the idea. Mr. Scuto's parents volunteered to print it for us without cost. The committee includes: Mssrs. Scuto, Nicolaci (Art Comm.), Floyd, Gross, Rosen and Muller."

Nov. 23. "Mr. Floyd tried to explain to the council how important it was to learn how to dance but he was not successful enough.

Mr. Nicolaci explained to the class the composition of the Diesel engine. He explained the distance between the cylinder and piston. He also explained the process by which it feeds itself."

It is not my intention to give the impression that each meeting of the Council was a huge success. The degree of success attained, however, has reached a plateau. Enthusiasm still reigns.

Nine of my eleven classes are functioning in creditable style. The other two, despite several poor meetings, have exerted every effort to make their work successful.

Needless to say, it requires patience and persistence. Let me conclude that I feel like the football coach who stands refulgent in glory, "My boys deserve all the credit".

JACK W. ENTIN.
Manhattan High School of
Aviation Trades.

THE REVIVAL OF DEBATING

Fifteen or twenty years ago debating was one of our major inter-scholastic activities. High school students of that period recall the popularity of debates and the excitement that attended meetings. Then the activity dwindled in position, until today it is a minor activity at some schools and non-existent at others.

Recently the Brooklyn Inter-scholastic Debating League decided to expand its membership and invited a number of high schools to join. In answer to its invitation, one high school chairman wrote that he disapproved of debating. Another answered that the calibre of pupils at his school made it impossible to conduct a debating program. Other schools failed to answer.

The causes of this decline are threefold: first, athletic competitions absorb more and more of the energies and interests of pupils; second, the character of the high school population has changed; and, above all, certain cogent attacks have been made by educators and others on the value of debating which have damaged its prestige.

The object of this article is to urge a reconsideration of the whole question of Debating as a high school activity and to recommend

that effort be made to restore it to its former importance in the extra-curricular system.

THE VALUES OF DEBATING

1. Primarily, a debate is a project involving research, thinking and speaking in public. Debating conforms with the accepted values of project work, involving as it does purposive activities coordinated in a real-life situation.

2. Debating gives invaluable training in reflection, analysis of conflicting ideas, coordination of ideas into a pattern of argument. The pupils engaged in a debate not only become familiar with the arguments bearing on the proposition, but must also arrange them in a logical sequence. They learn to detect fallacies inherent in argumentation and to be wary of persuasive discourse.

3. Debating trains pupils in the techniques of research and documentation. There is no better way to learn how to discover facts and statistics and to secure authoritative opinions from standard reference works.

4. Debating improves speech, and makes for readiness and self-confidence before an audience. The necessity of appearing before a critical audience and judges compels the debater to learn correct

pronunciation, phrasing, inflection, when he knows these factors are weighed in the final decision.

5. Debating develops tolerance, suspended judgment, sympathy for opposing viewpoints. Every faculty adviser of debating will recall the pupil, who having been assigned the "unpopular side" in a vital current issue, has reported that, in spite of himself, he has come to see that there was some validity in that viewpoint. Much of the adverse criticism of debating has been directed against the unreasonable adherence of adolescent debaters to one side of a question simply because that side has been assigned them. Critics have stigmatized such adherence as breeding dishonesty and hypocrisy. My experience has convinced me, to the contrary, that more often than not the effect of strict partisanship is to awaken in the participants the feeling that "the other side has some pretty good arguments too". The matter may be put another way: most high school students are attached to their ideas emotionally; it is only the thorough analysis to which discussion and debating subject their pet ideas that can shake them loose from their irrational conviction.

REFUTING THE CRITICS

Debating has been attacked in the past few years on many grounds. I shall attempt to answer these criticisms.

It has been said that debating

is morally indefensible. A student faced with the necessity of proving his point in the absence of adequate proof would be tempted to "imagine" the required facts and figures or deliberately to garble quotations. Obviously proper supervision would eliminate such malpractices. Further, the very possibility of such improper practices might serve the useful educational function of moral training.

Debating has been attacked on the ground that its purpose, as visualized by the pupils, is not the pursuit of truth so much as the winning of the judges' decision. The cure for this condition lies in the hands of those who select and instruct the judges, who should be told to weigh heavily against the offending team any breach of ethical conduct.

Again, debating is too "competitive". However, the current disapproval of competition is of dubious psychological validity at best. There is nothing like well directed competition to release creative energies in youth.

The charge is made that debaters are the puppets of their faculty advisers who plan and write their speeches which are then memorized, and who prepare two or three alternative rebuttals which are likewise memorized. Of course, this practice is unsound and indefensible. Faculty advisers must insist on original briefs and extemporaneous speeches; they must for-

bid "canned" rebuttal. It does not require rare insight in a teacher to detect instances in which "Esau's hands ill fit with Jacob's voice."

WAYS AND MEANS

If it is granted that debating should be restored to an important place in the extra-curricular program, the suggestions in this article may serve to give the initial impetus.

1. Each school should organize a club devoted to debating under the leadership of an enthusiastic teacher. A distinctive name should be adopted, such as that of the Erasmus Hall "Senate" and the Boys High School "Forum". The club should conduct informal discussions and formal debates among its own members, at first and later with Current Events, Social Science, Roosevelt, Pan-American and similar clubs in the school. Needless to say, this intramural program should be publicized and made attractive to the student body.

The club should then engage in inter-school debates. To expedite this program it is advisable to affiliate with a borough-wide or sectional Debating League. The Brooklyn Interscholastic League, for instance, has been in existence for many years. The advantage of a League is that it simplifies the arrangement of meets and standardizes procedures and criteria for judging.

2. The traditional form of de-

bate—consisting of formal presentation and refutation—is not the only way in which they may be conducted. Variations have been suggested which add to their enjoyableness and value. Experiments have been along several lines:

a. *The Informal Discussion.* The subject, its importance and background, may be announced by the chairman. Following this, speakers on either side volunteer to present arguments, to elaborate important points, to resolve conflicting viewpoints, to refute. Finally a speaker of each team sums up.

b. *The Question Debate.* After the chairman's brief introduction, one speaker on each side presents the main points of the argument. Then each opposing team puts questions to the other which must be answered briefly. Each team is allowed five to ten questions. The answers are extemporaneous. Sometimes the audience is allowed to put questions to the debaters. In the end the arguments are summed up by a speaker on each team.

c. *The Formal Debate.* For inter-scholastic competition, the formal debate is preferable. Since the decision in such debates is of greater moment than in intramural debates, a more formal type of debate is desirable. The very formalism of the traditional debate lends itself to more objective judgment.

3. The system of judging debates plays an important part in the success of the program. It is

necessary to develop reliable standards and a fair method of choosing the winning team. The experience of the B.I.D.L. has led to the adoption of certain procedures which should be widely adopted.

Judges are selected from among teachers and laymen on the basis of recommendation by faculty advisers and chairmen of participating schools. The director of the League, who is elected by the faculty advisers, keeps a list of available judges. Two weeks or so before each scheduled debate the names of three judges are submitted to both schools. The judges finally selected are notified. The judges are paid for their services, since it has been found that paid officials are more dependable.

In giving his decision after the debate each judge is required to submit a form containing a detailed account of the grounds of his decision. Values have been assigned to the various phases of debating and the judges must evaluate the performance of each team on the basis of the following evaluations:

1. Cogency of arguments—20 points.
2. Organization of team's presentation—20 points.
3. Refutation—30 points.
4. Manner of delivery — 30 points.

Of course these values are not absolute and may be varied to meet the desires of any group.

In connection with these reports, the judges are asked to make comments on the individual speakers which may be helpful in improving their later work. Among such comments may be criticism of speech and platform manner, and reference to any breach of sound debating technique. Attention may also be drawn to any unethical use of statistics or authority. These written criticisms, when brought to the attention of the pupils, serve as instructional and corrective material. Pupils are always eager to hear what others think of them.

Debating is coming back as a major high school activity. We should do everything in our power to hasten its revival.

ALFRED T. VOGEL.

Boys High School.

THE TEACHER AND THE STAMMERER

It is unfortunate that in most instances the inflexibility of the high school curriculum, due to the pressure of examination schedules, lack of adequate facilities, and an insufficient supply of trained teach-

ers, makes it impossible to give the child with speech defects the attention he needs and deserves.

There are not many high schools in the City where the students have more than one term in which

they come under the personal supervision of teachers with speech licenses, although the Board of Education has ruled that the third term of English, as well as the fifth term, should be oral English and should be taught by duly qualified and licensed speech teachers. It is at this point that the carefully worked out plan of the Director of Speech Improvement for the City breaks down.

The department provides for visiting speech specialists assigned to elementary school districts who conduct speech clinics in the various schools in the districts. When a stammerer is graduated from the elementary school, a letter is sent to the high school to which he goes, explaining that the pupil has been given corrective work in speech, and asking that such corrective work be continued. In most instances, the letter is turned over to the chairman of the speech department and, because of the aforementioned lack of facilities, is carefully filed. As for the pupil, little or nothing is done for him until he reaches the speech teacher in the fifth term. By that time, all the labor expended on him has lost its value, for continuity in training is one of the prime essentials in the correction of stammering.

In our own school, long a pioneer and leader in the field of advanced teaching methods and individualized instruction in speech, such conditions should not exist.

Our speech department, with its corps of able teachers, is capable of handling the speech rehabilitation of stammerers, if time can be found for such an essential activity. Our student personnel committee, composed of teachers trained to cope with the psychological problems of our students, is anxious to do its part in this important work. But these agencies, alone, are incapable of conquering the situation without the active cooperation of every teacher in the school. The problem is yours as well as theirs, and the solution to it lies in your hands.

Perhaps you are wondering by what stretch of the imagination such a problem should be laid at your threshold. Your job is a definite one, and one that all of you should be able to meet. It consists of recognizing the stammerers and then applying the procedures recommended for the handling of such pupils in your subject classes.

Any teacher can recognize the extreme stammerer. Here there is a definite lack of coordination of the parts of the speech mechanism that may manifest itself in any one of several ways. The pupil may block on initial sounds and find it impossible to continue. He may repeat sounds several times in succession. Or he may even sit silent in his seat when called upon, and make no effort to speak. Walking has often been described as a series of successful

stumbles forward. How many of us would attempt to walk if, over a period of years, every time we took a step we tumbled to the ground? The pupil you have considered sullen and unresponsive may be a stammerer who has tried to speak and failed so often that he has at last given up in despair. Such a pupil is deserving of the most kindly pity, requires our keen understanding, and should be treated with the utmost consideration.

As for the stammerer who still attempts to speak, who will deny that the bravery and cheerfulness with which he meets his numberless defeats are deserving of the highest commendation?

The incipient stammerer is harder to recognize and much more difficult to help, since he neither recognizes nor admits his condition. His recitations are marked by the following symptoms: there are breaks in the rhythm of his speech that cannot be ascribed to a lack of knowledge, occasional contortions or twitchings of the face or body, a tapping of the foot, a staring at some person or object while speaking with eyes that you know are unseeing, or a failure to meet the eyes of the person to whom he is speaking. In these cases, there may be no extreme blocking or repetition, but the teacher should diagnose such a student's condition as a stammer.

Stammering is not a condition peculiar to people with speech de-

fects. As I have said earlier, it is a lack of muscular coordination, and all of us stammer in one way or another from time to time, especially when we are excited or fatigued.

How many of us haven't stammered while playing a musical instrument, or driving a car, or hitting a golf ball, or even while speaking? If you can think back to that fatal moment when you asked your sweetheart to share your future fortunes, try to remember whether your speech at that moment was really rhythmic and without hesitation. How many of you just swallowed hard several times and finally poured forth the words?

In the stammerer, as we define him, the lack of coordination is more marked and is located in the vocal mechanism. His speech organs are as well developed physically as those of the pupil with normal speech, and in most instances there are situations in which the most confirmed stammerers speak normally.

Many stammerers have no trouble in conducting lengthy telephone conversations or speaking lines in a play; most of them can sing without a trace of difficulty. During the past Fall I spent some little time in the dressing room at the high school field before, during, and after the football games, where I had a chance to observe two of my stammerers. During the stress and excitement

incident to the games, neither of the boys manifested speech difficulties, apparently because personal speech contact was forgotten. These facts seem to confirm the theory that situation and personal psychological reactions are at the bottom of stammering.

So much for the recognition of the stammerer. As for what the classroom teacher can do in the handling of stammerers in his classes, the procedures are equally simple.

First, all stammerers should be reported as soon as they recognize the defect each term by all teachers to Mr. Hart, the chairman of the personnel committee, in writing. Mr. Hart, in turn, will notify the chairman of the speech department, Mr. Edgecomb, who should be allowed to make provisions for scheduling these pupils in speech correction classes, with the assistance of Mr. Polley, the chairman of the English department, in those instances where the pupil is not in the fifth term. Mr. Hart, in addition, should assign the pupils to the members of his committee who are to handle the psychological rehabilitation of the pupils.

The speech department will send to each subject teacher of a stammerer a notification similar to the one listed below. After a section containing blanks for the name of the teacher, the pupil and the class, it reads as follows:

"This pupil is a stammerer. In

your classroom meetings with him will you please observe the following recommendations:"

RECOMMENDATION FROM THE SPEECH DEPARTMENT

To Mr.:

....., a pupil in your.....class, is a stammerer. In your classroom meetings with this pupil, will you please observe the following recommendations:

1. Insist on prompt completion of all written assignments.
2. Call on him as frequently as you call on other pupils, but for the first few weeks of the term ask him questions that can be answered in a few words; do this in order to build up in his mind confidence and a series of success episodes.
3. Insist on answers in complete sentences.
4. When the pupil blocks or repeats the first sound or word, have him pause, take a breath, and begin his sentence again, speaking slowly and carefully.
5. Do not rush the pupil.
6. Kindness, calmness, and consideration should be reflected in your voice when you speak to the stammerer, for the voice of the teacher has a marked effect on him.
7. Wherever possible assign monitorial tasks to stammerers

and praise them upon their efficiency and helpfulness.

8. Stammerers who are among the better pupils in your class can be asked to give outside assistance to less capable students.
9. Try to secure the coöperation of the stammerer's classmates for him, so that he will not be subject to imitation, ridicule, or humiliation at their hands.
10. The most important service you can render to the stammerer and those who are working for his rehabilitation, is the frequent pat on the shoulder, word of encouragement, and praise for

a good performance in speech.

I thank you for your coöperation in this important matter.

Sincerely,

Chairman, Speech Department.

By following the recommendations made in this notification you can assist in remoulding the lives of the stammerers at Boys High school.

You have only to remember that you are following the dictates of the best minds in our school system who for years have insisted that we are teaching children and not subjects.

WILLIAM C. WOOLFSON.

Boys High School.

PROSE ROUTS POESY

A clever young woman, not a poet, related this story to me. Several months ago, while performing a service for a friend, she asked a gray haired editor of an old quality magazine what procedure should be followed in submitting poetry. "Well, my dear," said the editor sweetly, admitting the young woman into a cosmic secret, "you know there is very little room for poetry. We receive hundreds of excellent poems a year, but we can use only three or four in each issue. So when we select poems for our readers during any month, our mood dictates pretty much,

just as it does when we go to pluck flowers in a garden; sometimes we're in the mood for roses, and sometimes for lilies."

All those that have ears let them hear, or raise their honest voices and tell the superannuated editor that she is a dunce, and we expect to go on writing poetry of the stuff of life, not roses and lilies to suit the whims of editors who condemn poems to "space fillers." Besides, we have a secret of our own.

When, a good many years ago, my professors informed me that Alexander Pope "lisped in num-

bers for the numbers came," I was persuaded that poesy resided in Helicon, and one either imbibed the genuine liquor or one remained a small beer tavern haunter the remainder of one's life. Having brought a biased mind to begin with, I was naturally convinced in my invincible ignorance, that poetry was not only the divine inspiration of the poet who spoke, even as the Delphian oracle, as the spirit moved him, but poetry was also, I argued (with the echo of the august professors' pronouncements in my ears) the only stuff that endures, and the rest is evanescent, artificial, tinsel, merchant's ware, political rubbish, pedestrian and false mimicry of life.

A few years later, in the role of instructor, I repeated these pronouncements with the certainty of one who has learned his catechism and has become infallible in his rehearsals.

There came a day recently when I was tempted (and what instructor is not?) to compile an anthology for a survey course in literature. With consummate care, I examined the leading ones employed as textbooks in the high schools and universities, some several hundred pages in length, one (employed in one of the five largest universities in the country) swelling to 1204 pages. Of the latter, 558 pages were devoted to poetry. In our day, can an honest picture of our literary interests be viewed in a compilation which is

approximately fifty per cent poetry?

True, a historical development demands that we cite something in each century from "Beowulf" to "The Man Against the Sky." But the emphasis in anthologies is so directed that the sole implication is the supremacy of poetry and the inferior state of prose. Time now, I insist, that cudgels be taken up in defense of revised anthologies, particularly in an age when poets are included on publishers' lists for mere embellishment and to add "dignity;" particularly, in an age when poetry (listen to the clamor and protest) is neither bought for reading nor read; particularly, since the ignorance (or is it indifference? or native dislike? or impatience with reading poetry without the guiding hand of a professorial footnote writer to uncover the patent message?) of poetry said to be universal among teachers is appalling; particularly, since this is no longer the Elizabethan age when men passed from hand to hand, surpassed from hand to hand, the "sugared reptitiously often, the 'sugared sonnets' of a poet not yet a 'best seller'; particularly in an age when more people reap delight from 'Point Counterpoint' than from 'Idylls of the King' (which irked A. E. Housman); more from the exquisite prose of 'Now in November' than from Robinson's 'Tristram'; more from 'Arrow-smith' than from 'Roan Stallion'; more from 'A Hundred Million

Guinea Pigs" and Laski's "Liberty in the Modern State" and "Ends and Means" and "The Human Comedy" than from Pulitzer Prize Poets; more from "Areopagitica" and Beard's works than from the mass of Wordsworth's pedestrian "Excursion."

As for translations from the Greek and Roman classics, Rouse's "The Story of Odysseus" was an answer for those who looked in vain for verse translations bearing "the surge and thunder of the Odyssey": they had to be contented with a good yarn.

Not that I prefer prose as prose before poetry as poetry. But tastes in literary form change. Furthermore, when was poetry the darling of the literate mass? How many college graduates pant after poetry to quench an intellectual, emotional or spiritual thirst? How many copies of "Public Speech" or "Those Not Elect" were sold or read? What encouragement is offered even by our best periodicals to the best efforts of genuine poets? Yes, I grant you that an argument is specious when it weighs the value of a work of art by the number of those who appreciate it—but I am not resorting to so patent a fallacy. What I wish to convey is that other forms may be more vital in men's lives than that of poetry, painful as the realization may be. Surely I am not prepared to dismiss a work so vital as MacLeish's "Public

Speech," which should be in every literate person's hands.

Besides, by what critical canons is poetry entitled to an immortality denied to prose? The "Faerie Queene" (who besides Phelps reads it now?) may be enduring stuff; so are "The Crock Of Gold," and "Flowering Judas." By what critical canons shall we give more space to the poetry of Dryden and Pope and Morris and Tennyson than to John Dewey's "Experience and Nature" and Ruskin's "Unto These Last" and Thoreau, Mark Twain, and Chase and passages from Santayana?

Yes, this is a new age (transitional? controversial?) and it is no doubt giving birth to its own singers. But drama in the great blank verse of the Elizabethan day is no longer visible or audible (Maxwell Anderson's diluted flow would have been thrown at the head of Mistress Quickly by Jonson quaffing at the Mermaid Tavern.) Now men are reading, arguing, contemplating, inquiring and reaching momentous decisions—through prose. That "songs may inspirit us," I do not deny; but I firmly assert that a significant novel, oration, essay or play is equally edifying, moving and efficacious. And evidence in abundance may be cited from "The Magic Mountain" to the plays of S. N. Behrman.

The ideal anthology would weave some lyrics of the past as well as of our day, together with

a play of Shakespeare, into a long introductory chapter on poetry as a form, no more singular than prose, and as full of magnificent artifices. At the close I should add:

"A little learning is a dangerous thing;

Drink deep or taste not of the Pierian spring"—

and advise the reader to search, for "incentives come from the soul's self," among the poets for further edification, delight and the refinement of his tastes. The remainder of compilation would be devoted to prose—Milton, Bacon, Ruskin, Edmund Wilson, Russell, Beard, Dewey, Burton, the Huxleys, Synge, Stevenson, Benson, Yeats, Thoreau, Justice Holmes, Hazlitt, Santayana, Macaulay, Hemingway, Woolf, Cardozo, Brandeis, Laski, and a host of others, from the "Testaments" to "Passage to India."

But I grow suddenly faint; with trepidation I raise my pen and shears, then lay them down with trembling hands. What shall I do about those poems that still haunt me—the "music makers" ranging from Chaucer to Burns; from the earlier Wordsworth to Masfield's "Consecration"; from Donne to MacLeish; from "Lycidas" to "Mending Wall"; from Shakespeare's "Sonnets" to Edna Millay; from "Don Juan" to "Sa-

tires of Circumstance"; from Blake to Leonie Adams.

If I dare compile my anthology, shall I be doomed to walk about the earth all the days of my life, holding each passerby with a glittering eye, compelling him to listen to my mea culpa, the remorse of a villain who abandoned his beloved?

No, I feel the problem lies elsewhere. Frankly, the idea of an anthology was only a point of departure. What really matters is in whose service poetry or prose shall be employed. And our gratitude unbounding we give to all who labor with us in behalf of a civilized humanity. And we gladly make them at home in our anthology, be they writers of prose or poetry, though our anthology rise to the height of a skyscraper. No anthology shall dare to shut its doors upon the men "in peril," lauded by Cowley:

"Safe is the man with blunderbuss
Who stalks the hippopotamus
On Niger's bank, or scours the
Veldt

To rape the lion of his pelt;
But deep in peril he who sits
At home to rack his lonely wits
And there do battle, grim and
blind,

Against the jackals of the mind."

ALLEN KANFER.

Grover Cleveland High School.

HIGH POINTS

WHITHER GEOMETRY?

Richard Green glanced quickly at his watch. Twenty minutes more and the geometry period would be over. Time didn't march on at all here; it seemed to be doing some kind of a parade rest and shaking the watch didn't help. Junior High School hadn't been like this. There he had managed to pass all his subjects, including algebra, even though his mind was perhaps not overcrowded with brain matter. He did not quite understand why he should have spent a year letting "X" stand for things, but geometry was the limit! And the teacher wasn't even goodlooking. He tried to console himself with the thought that perhaps in some way unknown to him it might make him smart like his teacher.

Today's lesson was especially important because he was going to learn to reason indirectly. The teacher had by this time scattered some lines over the blackboard and was taking a deep breath. Richard followed the entire demonstration with his eyes, ears and thoughts, even trying to memorize some of the proceedings.

When it was all over, yellow paper was sent around the room and the fun began. Our little Euclid closed his eyes and tried to

revive the past few minutes. Two lines were given and they had to come out parallel. Oh, yes! He remembered the first step. AB is not parallel to CD; there were only two possibilities. But what happened next? He let his eyes wander to the desk ahead for inspiration. That was it! Angle 1 is greater than Angle 2. Wasn't an exterior angle greater than all angles? Of course Angle 1 looked as if it might be equal to Angle 2 but that might just be one of those optical illusions the teacher had told them about. The rest of the proof was simple. AB is parallel to CD because everything else is wrong.

Proudly Richard carried his work to the teacher's desk. A red pencil was quickly pushed across the face of the paper and the owner was on his way back wearing a puzzled look. How could anything you didn't learn make you smart? Besides, even if AB were not parallel to CD, a man could still be a good doctor. Was that the bell? Thank goodness!

In the past few years, especially since the abolition of the elementary algebra Regents examination, it has become more evident that a large proportion of our geometry students are unfit for this subject and, conversely, the

geometry that is being taught today is unfit for these students.

There are large numbers of boys who in mathematics are slow, even if not sure. Extending the present course over three terms so that one full term could be devoted to Book I, might meet their needs. A second alternative is to make the present course more digestible by shifting the emphasis away from formal demonstrations.

After most of the sand has been taken out, boys have even learned to like spinach. It is often argued that any dilution of our geometry will undermine its rigor. I am inclined to agree with Richard that there can be no value in a proposition which a boy does not grasp. Isn't it good mathematics to substitute less rigor and more understanding for more rigor and no understanding?

ADOLPH TANENBAUM.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

MOTION PICTURE APPRECIATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The motion picture as entertainment is still regarded as suspect by the average teacher. He frowns on the movies as a sordid competitor with literature, art and music. Although in the past few years he has grudgingly been compelled to admit that films like, "Mutiny On The Bounty," "Romeo and Juliet," "The Life Of Louis Pasteur," "Captains Courageous," "The Good Earth," "The

Life Of Emile Zola," and others, have artistic merit and educational value, these were the exceptions rather than the rule. On the whole, he argues, the greater percentage of films shown has been manifestly of low standard and unfit for children's consumption. Therefore, to give motion pictures the cold shoulder, as it were, is the only intelligent way of ignoring its existence. Out of sight, out of mind.

That attitude, unfortunately, is traditional with the ostrich. It is not becoming a teacher of children. To ignore the most vital and influential force in the lives of our youth today, is a sign of mental atrophy. It cannot be ruled out of existence by mere indifference. Hybrid though it is, it is the newest medium of human expression, and already is more universal in its appeal than the older arts.

Recent studies made by educators strongly emphasize the movies' profound influence in the shaping and moulding of youthful character. They have found that they exert powerful impressions on the thinking habits of children, and definitely color their concepts of morals and ideals. Well, then, insists our skeptical teacher, if the influence of the movies is so potent a factor, why not censor them? Yes, but as leaders of children it is pertinent to remember that censorship is spas-

modic, the result of an aroused public incensed at some infraction of the moral code, or a crude violation of public good taste. As soon as the public's conscience has been appeased, the effect of censorship is soon vitiated. And another point worth stressing, is the fact that censorship has no permanent value, and can never improve mediocrity. At best it has no positive influence. It is a negative force, and is contrary to democratic ideals. To insist therefore, that it is not within the province of the teacher to concern himself with the motion picture, entails a grave misunderstanding of a teacher's duty to children. This attitude certainly does not harmonize with the views of our Superintendent of Schools on motion pictures.

Under date of June 23, 1934, Dr. Harold G. Campbell, Superintendent of Schools, stated, in a communication to Dr. John S. Roberts, Associate Superintendent, on the subject of "Coöperation of our public schools in the movement to compel the production and exhibition of better motion pictures," "We have long since abandoned the idea that education consists simply of instruction given and received in school. We know that children are being 'educated' during every hour of the day as much, perhaps, while they are out of school as while they are in school. The movies are playing

a large part in this 'out-of-school education' and we, who are charged with the development of their character, attitudes, and habits, are vitally concerned that the part played and the influence exerted by the movies shall be helpful rather than destructive."

It is quite evident then, that a teacher's attitude towards movies should not be one of hostility and indifference, but one of coöperative interest. The duty to the child should be of paramount importance. Dr. Campbell has stressed time and time again that the aim of the school is to develop in the child finer feelings and impulses, to inculcate ideals of behavior and conduct, to train in right thinking and wholesome living. Let us keep in mind, we utilize the other arts for these very purposes. Students are taught to increase their enjoyment and understanding of poetry; they are helped to discover what is best in literature, and also to prefer it; they are assisted to develop tastes for good music; they are led to appreciate the beauties of Michael Angelo, Da Vinci, Rembrandt, Cezanne, Van Gogh, and the other masters, classic and modern.

Why not then cope with the motion picture problem in the school proper? This would be a direct challenge to an industry which sees the production of films only in terms of dollars and cents.

The producing companies insist that they will produce better pictures providing there are audiences which will pay to see them. Here then is a great social and ethical opportunity for the school. Let us take up the challenge and educate the youth to better standards by inculcating discrimination and appreciation. But how is that to be done?

At Lew Wallace Junior High School an experimental course, *The History And Appreciation of Motion Pictures*, has been organized, and is now being given once a week to a class of thirty-one students as part of the English curriculum. The Course consists of ten lessons, each lesson divided into three parts. The first part is devoted to the talk, then follows the showing of an illustrative reel, and the last part is given over to student discussion. With the first lesson it became quite evident that the series would have to be extended to fifteen lessons, so as to allow ample time for the presentation of the subject matter and the discussions.

The following subjects are being considered:—

1. Origins of Motion Pictures
2. Motion Pictures in Their Infancy
3. The Feature Picture
4. Introduction of Sound and Its Significance
5. Types of Pictures

6. Color Pictures and Cartoons
7. Foreign Films and Their Influence
8. The Making of a Motion Picture
9. What Makes a Good Movie?
10. Written Criticism of a Current Movie

One of the important activities of the Course is the keeping of a Scrap Book. Each student is required to keep a Book for his compositions, picture criticisms, original research and film photographs. Included in this Book is the first composition assignment, "Why I Go to the Movies?" This was a piece of homework given for the purpose of ascertaining the student's interest in the movies and of establishing his standards of appreciation. It is to be compared with the written criticism of the last lesson in order to determine the individual's progress in motion picture discrimination and appreciation at the completion of the Course. An important phase of the work is research. Each week five students are given special assignments on topics such as, Development of the Camera and Photography, Early Motion Picture Directors and Actors, Early History of Popular Entertainment, Early Experiments in Color Photography, Processes in Color Photography, etc., and are required to report during the subsequent lesson, which

is followed by class discussions.

As with most pioneering experiences, the materials available are not of the best, and what there is cannot be considered adequate. For instance, the projection machine for showing the reels is a 16 mm. silent old style instrument, and the screen is a makeshift home-affair, a window shade, which leaves a great deal to be desired for proper screening. As for reference books at the local library, there was little available at first, but with the kind cooperation of the Superintendent of the Children's Department, this was soon remedied. There is now at the branch library a goodly number of volumes on the motion picture, although most of the books are written in language and style over the heads of the students. Because the study of motion picture appreciation in the public schools has been negligible, few, if any, books have been written on the subject for the youthful intelligence. The students taking the Course have been therefore compelled to pore over volumes intended for adults.

Another interesting feature of the Course is the intensive use of stills in the classroom. Through the courtesy of the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors sets of stills dealing with important feature pictures having educational value have been received. These are hung on the walls, and are studied incessantly by the students. These stills depict the vast amount

of research film producers have to undertake in order to reproduce authentically costumes, architecture and customs of various periods. As historical data they are of tremendous importance, and leave indelible impressions on the young minds. They further help to dramatize important scenes, and when the pictures themselves are viewed, these particular scenes tend to heighten the enjoyment of the films as a whole. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on the value of these stills. Not only the students who take the Course are enamoured of them, but almost the rest of the student body. Time and again the room has been packed with curious-eyed youngsters studying the stills, when they should have been down in the yard playing in the open air during the lunch period. In fact the room has become a veritable picture gallery for the children of the entire school.

At this point it might be advisable to sum up the case for teaching motion picture appreciation in the school. The enthusiasm stirred by this experiment has been very gratifying. The children have been stimulated to go to the library and read every available book on films. Even the novels which have been converted to pictures they devour voraciously on their own initiative. For the first time in their lives they have caught the beauty of Shakespeare's language, have become enthralled with the characters and in-

trigued with the stories. They have since begun to read the Bard of their own free will, which even zeros couldn't compel them to do before. Since the Course began, the youngsters have become alive to movie values. Whereas formerly they went to see pictures indiscriminately, they now go from picture house to picture house and "shop for movies." They see only those films, the criticisms of which they have first read. Exhibitors' blurbs they have learned to ignore, and are not taken in by the advance shots of "coming attraction." And what is of significant importance is the fact that they no longer approve the double feature program. They view only the feature which interests them and walk out from the other. As they express it, "The other picture spoils the mood of the important one." This is the hopeful and encouraging development in these youngsters. Already they have acquired a sense of discrimination and appreciation. It is quality they look for and not quantity. They'd rather see one good picture than two bad ones. And the free handouts, such as Bingo and Screeno, cannot blind them to the inferior values of the pictures. They know what they want and refuse to play "sucker" to the shoddy flash of the movies and its cheap gambling inducements.

Beginning with the February term, Mr. Albert E. King, Principal of the school, has requested that seven English classes devote

one period per week to motion picture appreciation. It is his intention ultimately to extend this course to all the students of the school.

Through the kind efforts of Miss Rita Hochheimer, Assistant Director of the Bureau of Visual Instruction of the Board of Education, several illustrative films were made available for special showings. She also offered to procure for the Course next term a real beaded screen and 16 mm. sound projector, which will greatly help to make the experiment a success.

In conclusion, we wish to state that from the results of our experience thus far, we are led to reaffirm our faith in education as the force which eventually will raise the standards of motion picture entertainment, and so bring about the production of better films.

JEANNE N. BUSH.

Lew Wallace Junior High School.

LANCELOT TO THE RESCUE!

Literature is generally regarded as a fine medium for character training, since it serves as a sort of laboratory wherein character presentation, analysis, evaluation and appreciation may best be studied. Yet not often is it given to us, as it was to me recently, to enjoy a realization of our labor's value through some actual, "real life" reaction situation.

In such character contemplation,

we usually endeavor to have students see and understand the essential humanity of these "people" whom they are generally either so ready to dub scoundrel or eager to canonize. My hope always has been that this attempt to have pupils fully appreciate characters as real individuals possessed, in some measure, of the foibles and graces of mankind, might help them finally to the ideal of sympathy and tolerance to the end that "man's inhumanity to man" might be just a bit less keen in just a few more cases.

There is a particular instance, which I shall always remember, in which Lancelot served admirably in revitalizing a school-girl's friendship. There had been much of the usual discussion, pro and con, of the baseness and the grandeur of his character. Some days later, one little girl confessed that literature seemed to be much more fun when one began to strive for balanced appraisals of the people who previously had been but pale shadows, definitely and exclusively good or bad—although she didn't express it just that way, of course.

The climax—from my point-of-view—came after a summer's vacation when the youngster informed me that she and another member of the class from whom she had been estranged for months had effected a reconciliation. She was quite sure that new attitudes acquired from her work with the "Idylls of The King" had had

something to do with her renewal of friendship. This unusually alert and sensitive girl, certainly more articulate than most, had "learned" through literature to find and appreciate redeeming qualities in real life, too.

PAUL BENOV.

Samuel Tilden High School.

WHAT VALUE THE TEACHER-IN-TRAINING?

It has always been my custom when the service of a teacher-in-training is about to expire to ask him to give me a statement as to what he thought he got out of his experience in this position and what suggestions he had to offer that might make the work of the supervisor in training the teacher-in-training more efficient.

I received recently a statement from a former teacher-in-training covering his ideas. It proved so illuminating that I felt what he had to say should be passed on for the benefit of others. There are certain thoughts indicated in his comments which point out that in his case at least there was some advantage and benefit accruing to him because of the opportunity he had to serve as a teacher-in-training. His letter follows:

Dear _____:

At the time of leaving, I promised to write you of my impressions on the value of my experiences as teacher-in-training, but the matter of getting adjusted to my

present situation has caused me to put it off until now.

I would draw your attention first to the case of a Miss S—— S——, a Geometry-I student who was failed by me last term. This young lady visited me at ——, and said she had previously written me at your suggestion, although I received no letter, to inquire into the possibility of having her mark changed to a passing one. The quality of her work was always just about "borderline," failing with 60 per cent the first marking period, passing the second, and of 64 per cent grade on the uniform examination. Awareness of this uncertain foundation for the work of Geometry II and the Regents' examination led me to fail the student. However, a review of the case and a consideration of the fact that this student intends to go to college and that students with poorer records have been passed by others, makes me question whether I have not been too severe in my decision and whether I could not have given her a chance at Geometry II without any stretching of the point of her deserving that chance. I do not know what previous conversation you have had with the student; probably she will again raise this subject with you; in any case, I offer this brief explanation with the request that you make such disposition of the case as seems wisest in your judgment.

Concerning the program of work as teacher-in-training, I wish to

express particular satisfaction with the method of having the teacher-in-training observe regularly in one class in a grade which he himself is teaching. Random observation has certain values, but I have come to realize that no lesson can be judged in isolation; when so seen, the skill of the teacher in developing the new part and in building upon the previous knowledge of the students is largely lost on the observer. Regular observation thus has the advantage of showing a connected series of lessons.

Observing classes in the same grades which the trainee himself is teaching, I feel is desirable, not alone because it helps the teacher-in-training with his own teaching, but because he is then in a better position to appreciate the problems which the regular teacher is meeting and the teaching methods the latter is using to solve them. In this connection, I feel that it might have been better for me to have also observed a Mathematics III class regularly, and to have sat in on an ordinary Geometry class instead of your selected group. On the other hand, I particularly wished to observe your own teaching because my observation as pupil-teacher had convinced me that you have a certain artistry in the presentation of subject matter to which few of the other teachers in the department have attained. Perhaps if you ever have a teacher-in-training again, it would be to

his advantage to so arrange his program that he could regularly observe highly skilled teachers teaching the same grades as his own.

When I was first a teacher-in-training at ——, I observed a grade which I also taught, but I soon discovered that I consciously or unconsciously imitated in my own class the lessons I had observed. I felt that such work was not leading me to develop my own initiative and ability in the planning of lessons, and furthermore might lead to my teaching in ways which were not the most successful for my class although they might have worked well with the group observed, either because of differences in the composition of the two groups or differences between my personality and natural style and that of the teacher observed. I therefore consciously planned to have my group always a lesson or two ahead of the observed group, so that I could have the opportunity to develop my own teaching ability and yet see later wherein I might have improved upon my methods, sometimes even giving to my class later a few of the highlights which I had picked up in this way. I tried to follow this plan again in teaching Geometry last term at James Monroe, and I pass it on to you as a suggestion for a possible hint to future teachers-in-training who might fall into this danger in observing grades which they themselves teach.

My satisfaction with the method of regular observation in definite classes does not mean that I do not think random observation is also desirable. As I once remarked to you, I have noticed that some teachers excel in one particular phase of teaching, as drill or presentation of new subject matter, while others are outstanding in a different phase. The teacher-in-training ought to have an opportunity to see a master in each of these phases. Secondly, it is probably true that natural differences in personality and temperament make it absolutely impossible for a teacher-in-training to teach in the manner used by some of those he may observe. I know I shall never be as forceful and dynamic in my teaching as some members of your department nor as calm and placid as others I have seen there, yet it appeared to me that some teachers using each of these extremes were equally successful. Observing various teachers offers an opportunity to find that method which is most suited to one's natural personal characteristics.

At the beginning of the term you suggested that I record brief comments on the classes I visited. I followed this suggestion for some time, and found that it tended to make my observation more pointed—I looked for certain particulars in each lesson.

One of the richest sources for the improvement of my teaching methods, was your discussion of

the reports of your class visits. Faults I had never noticed myself were disclosed to me, and suggestions given for my betterment which in my limited experience had never occurred to me. As teacher-in-training at — before coming to — I was visited several times by the head of the department, but never once was a report or any comment whatsoever given to me. The principal of the school did visit me twice and later discussed the lesson, but the fact that he was not so close to classroom teaching himself and that mathematics was not his field made his observation of a more general sort.

I would like to express my appreciation here for the pleasant associations with you and particularly for your friendly and helpful manner at all times. Frankly, I have known few supervisors, whether in the school system or in other situations, who showed more the kindness and sympathetic understanding of a friend and adviser instead of the aloof air typical of a supervisor. Of more worth than all the suggestions and hints on methods of teaching, I think, was the self-confidence you thus inspired in me from the time I had the good fortune to make your acquaintance as a pupil-teacher.

Very truly yours,

I feel that the suggestions presented in this letter are so valuable

to me that I thought it would be an excellent idea to let others know how teachers-in-training react, and that if there is any value in these suggestions at all, that they be passed on for the benefit of others to take advantage of.

A MATHEMATICS CHAIRMAN.

A SOCIALIZED PREFECT PERIOD

The new class assembled noisily and stared with ill-concealed curiosity at the prefect teacher. It was a late session group—and neither years nor circumstances had given them that circumspect insouciance that enables one to examine an object without making it too obvious.

The teacher on the other hand was able to cover up his inner qualms of doubtful trepidation with a calm outer mask of everyday professional preoccupation. But he was not fooling himself. This was a tough bunch—he was going to have his hands full. He mustered his resources and rapped for order.

"Boys—" he avoided the dozen or so girls; they did not seem to need special attention—"this term we are planning to conduct our prefect period somewhat differently." A loud snicker from a corner caused him to focus his attention on a tall, gangly, pimply-faced individual who was leeringly leaning on the radiator. The room was overcrowded. The speaker's eyes passed over him in absolute com-

posure—but an inner gadget clicked a mental item for future reference.

"Instead of the usual formal method I am thinking of using a socialized system that I am hoping will be more agreeable to all of us—if you are able to cooperate. I'll go into the details later after we have elected our class officers."

The class took this rather indifferently. If they knew what he was talking about, they gave no evidence of it. The election of officers, however, caused them to perk up their ears. Hands were thrust violently into the air and voices rumbled hoarsely from all sides. The teacher's voice broke the oncoming storm.

"Let us do this in regular parliamentary style. I shall appoint a temporary chairman who will conduct the election for president. When you've elected your president he will continue with the election of officers. Now let me see—" he pointed to a sharp-looking youngster whose lack of size and general personality obviously precluded him from the chief post.

The election proceeded. Amid harsh janglings and violent wranglings, the choice was made—a quiet, unassuming, scholarly-looking individual who seemed capable enough from an intelligence standpoint, but—

And thus the socialized prefect project was started. The idea promulgated was one of demo-

cratic freedom, founded on good taste and proper behaviour. The officers had their duties to perform and were properly instructed. The class was impressed with the value of cooperative integrity. This was their class—they had elected their own officers—it was up to them to abide by their decision.

So far so good, it would seem. But difficulties arose almost immediately. They were a vital, lively, healthy, active, loose-mouthed, hard-voiced lot—and they insisted on freeing their libidos to the utter exclusion of all others. The rule of "No Talking" except with special permission was immediately shattered and strewn about to the accompaniment of raucous roars.

The poor intelligent attempting to play the part of executive and coördinator was absolutely floored. He appealed to the teacher. The teacher in turn appealed to the class. The class turned on the president. Pandemonium.

And this was the situation for quite a while, with the president harried and harassed and careworn—and the teacher standing by and taking over when the going got too rough. Finally it became evident that the class would not settle down to ordinary routine. Cooperation was out of the question. Something had to be done—and the teacher made the first move.

"Boys," he said one day, "it looks as if you're not getting along any too well with your president—the president of your own choice.

I am going to give you another president. The present president has agreed to the experiment, so if the boy I select is agreeable I shall appoint him class president. Cullen—"addressing the gangly, pimpled gawk who had snickered so expressively the first day, "how would you like to be president?"

The boy flushed and became confused. "Who—me? No—no—not me. I don't want to be president."

The teacher smiled comfortingly. "Well, here's the proposition, Cullen. As matters stand you are the biggest disturbing element in the class. Unless a miracle occurs you are headed for the dean's office—and a character card filed against your record. The chances are that you won't last a year in this school at the rate you are going. Your marks are bad—your attitude atrocious. Here's your chance to make good and become a worthwhile citizen in this school—or else."

The last was uttered with proper vocal significance. The boy squirmed and looked at his gang for support. They avoided his eyes in stony neutrality. Something stirred within him—was it the challenge to make good?—was it the fear of punishment?—was it the urge of self-aggrandizement? Was it—all combined?

He accepted. The switch was made—and a new order of things was felt almost immediately. This was no bloated intelligent. This was a boy of their own kind. When he said, "Shut up" they

shut—and when he glared at a potential evil-doer, the latter quaked inwardly. Experience had probably taught him that the final requiem of unfinished business was not a happy tune.

With a class president who was respected, the teacher was now able to proceed with his social experiment. He lifted the "No Talking" ban and permitted them to converse in tones not overheard by the others. After he had reduced their voices to a hoarse mumble, he continued his abjurations until he had a standard of tone that was acceptable if not perfect. The reins of government were in the hands of the president and his staff completely except for such formal records as had to be handled personally. Instead of the tense, aggressively-defensive, irritable atmosphere there gradually came into effect a relaxed, pleasant, sociable aura that expressed the true spirit of democracy.

And thus it was that what the teacher wanted in the first place came to pass. He had gotten off to a bad start, but with the proper people at the helm—and the right spirit of coöperation—he was able to walk into the prefect room with the assurance that the routine of the class was being attended—the boys and girls were companionable—and life was livable.

Home room projects began to spring up as if by magic. It seemed there were singers, dancers, comics (and such comics!) and actors who sought self-expression. An

entertainment committee was appointed—a date was set—and a show was on. The feature was a mock trial at which the defendant—a noisy, loose-lipped, muck-monger—defended himself against the charge that he was a gentleman. The subtlety of the proceedings escaped him at times for he found himself often on the side of the district attorney claiming he was a gentleman—when it was his duty to prove that he was not a gentleman. Lots of fun—and the lesson struck home.

It is several years later—and the boys are marching into the assembly hall for their graduation exercises. The teacher sees Cullen, the mock-trialer—the others, too, who had left their indelible impressions on his memories. Fine, upstanding boys—they had just spoken with him, reminiscing about old times.

Yes, it was certainly worthwhile—the socialized prefect period—the struggles—the disappointments. Tomorrow he would meet another group—and he would start them off again on the right road—the road to socialized education—Democracy.

SAMUEL P. SHARRON.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

VISUAL AIDS IN BUSINESS TRAINING

A unique program devoted exclusively to the use of film as a teaching device in elementary business training was presented on March 11, 1938 at the meeting of

the Commercial Section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education. The program, consisting of a series of lesson units presented through the media of opaque projection, lantern slides, film strips and moving pictures, was arranged by the members of the faculty of Franklin K. Lane High School under the direction of Max B. Greenstein, chairman of the accounting department.

In presenting the first lesson on the topic of preparation of the payroll, Mr. Galburt demonstrated identical material through three different techniques. His first presentation was through the use of the opaque projector. This presentation was followed by lantern slides and a film strip to illustrate the difference in quality of image. Mr. Galburt's presentation was accompanied by a lesson plan including mimeographed forms, questions and problems to provide summary and application for the pupils and a homework assignment.

The second lesson was presented by the writer through the medium of a film strip on the topic of the preparation of outgoing first class mail for posting. In order to arouse interest, the apperceptive basis of the lesson was presented through a series of cartoons contributing to a concept of a unified sequence of steps in the origin and preparation of outgoing mail. A mimeographed sheet containing the plan of the lesson, questions for

summary and application and the homework assignment was provided.

Two lessons prepared by Irving Rosenblum and Dr. Charles A. Gramet, chairman of the Biology Department of Franklin K. Lane High School, were next presented through the use of film strips. In the first lesson the topic of insurance and insurable risks were presented through the use of pictures and cartoons reproduced through the courtesy of the Aetna Life Insurance Company illustrating the variety of risks that may be covered by insurance.

The second lesson presented six general types of retail organizations, illustrated through pictures of various stores in order to aid pupils to recognize types of retail stores in their neighborhood, and to stimulate thought on the problems of retail business organization. In presenting this lesson, it was pointed out that the apperceptive basis of the lesson was a previous discussion of the difference between wholesale and retail organization. A mimeographed outline of the lesson was distributed together with questions for summary and application.

The final item on the evening's program was a moving picture prepared by Abraham Kimmel on the subject of locating and reaching places of interest in New York City. The cast in the picture consisted entirely of faculty members and students of the Franklin K. Lane High School. The story is

that of a visitor from out-of-town who arranges through a business acquaintance in New York, to see the interesting sights in the city. The film, by means of diagrams, maps and pictures presents the course of travel by subway and bus to Rockefeller Center, the zoo at Central Park, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Woolworth Building, City Hall, Wall Street, the Statue of Liberty, Aquarium and a variety of other sights. It should be noted that Mr. Kimmel's film will be found suitable for use in civics as well. A mimeographed outline of the picture with questions for summary and application was provided.

EVALUATION OF THE DIFFERENT MEDIA

In planning the meeting, Mr. Greenstein and his department set as their purpose a preliminary demonstration of varying visual aid techniques. As result of the meeting and discussions among those who contributed to the meeting a summary and criticism of these devices is herewith submitted for general consideration.

Opaque Projector

By far the simplest device demonstrated was the opaque projector, inasmuch as the preparation and presentation of the material to be projected on the screen requires no technical training. In its ability to present color, the opaque projector again is superior to the others. Opaque slides are simple cardboard squares of six inches

each upon which is mounted the image to be reflected through mirrors and projected on the screen.

There are several disadvantages in the use of the opaque projector. First, in handling the machine, the operator's eyes are subjected to serious glare which may of course be overcome by the use of tinted glasses. There is also much diffusion and waste of light which in turn reduces the clarity of image projected on the screen. This, however, is not such as will reduce the value of this visual aid within an ordinary classroom. The heat of the lamp concentrated upon the opaque slide tends to wrinkle or scorch the image to be projected. This criticism however is overcome by the relative ease of preparation of the opaque slide.

Lantern Slide

For clarity of image, for flexibility of sequence and for ease of handling the apparatus, the lantern slide has much value. Slides may be prepared at a cost of about six cents each.

Preparation of the slide however requires some technical ability. Such technical ability as is necessary may be learned by the ordinary teacher within a period of two months at most. After the technical ability has been acquired, preparation of a set of slides can be made within two or three weeks.

Film Strip

In compactness, clarity of image,

ease of handling the apparatus and in economy, the film strip is well favored. A master film strip can be produced at a cost of \$2 or \$3 from which reprints can be made at a cost of about \$.25 for an entire film lesson.

In producing his own film strip, the writer was able to demonstrate the ability of the ordinary teacher to learn fairly quickly the technical processes required in the preparation of a film strip. Upon completion of the learning process, a film strip may be produced within a month, or less.

Moving Pictures

Where the previously mentioned techniques are unable to provide action and movement, the moving picture steps in and offers a valuable aid to the concrete presentation of subject matter. The value of moving pictures requires little comment. It is recognized that pupil interest is high when moving pictures are presented. If properly prepared, it provides a most valuable teaching device.

As was demonstrated, a moving picture can be prepared by a teacher. The cost of the picture presented was only about \$30. Reprints can be made at small cost for general distribution.

A GENERAL EVALUATION OF VISUAL AIDS

How frequently do you find your descriptive language insufficient to drive home a point which could easily be made through a picture?

How often would you like to make a field trip for enrichment of subject matter, but you are at a loss for time and energy? Would you not find it more valuable and economical to base your lesson upon a concrete image presented to the class?

Arguments for visual aids in teaching may be listed hundred-fold. Arguments for new techniques and new devices are ever recurring. Other subjects—particularly the sciences—have created hundreds of lesson units through visual aids.

We recognize the possibility of overdoing a good device. We do, however, recognize the possibilities of this method for presentation of business information. Business training has not yet taken advantage of this highly approved technique. Why not now?

ALEXANDER SELWYN.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

THE SCIENCE SQUAD

In 1936, the late Superintendent Roberts issued circular 85 which stated that one of the duties of the laboratory assistant may be the organizing and directing of a laboratory—and preparation—room squad. Most of the service squads of a school are started at the suggestion of the principal or as the need arises; but it is in the science department that we find a definite supervisory direction for the creation of a science squad. Although squad organization in

different schools may vary slightly, the following is the general pattern. Pupils of all terms are eligible to join. The only requirements are an interest in science and a willingness to do certain assigned work. Usually, only volunteers make up the squad. The number of pupils taken for squad service is limited only by the assistant handling the squad. Work periods are of two kinds. During his free periods, the pupil may work in the science preparation rooms; after school, he may do squad work for approximately one period.

Squad leadership may vary. Some laboratory assistants keep all squad members on the same level regardless of seniority; others select their squad leaders on a basis of ability or seniority. Another method is to allow the members to select their own leader and, possibly, an assistant leader.

The duties of the squad are many. Members deliver materials to the teachers of the department at the beginning of the period and bring the materials back to the preparation room at the close of the period. Demonstrations of the period. Demonstrations ordered by the teachers are put together by squad members. In some cases, they run the visual aids apparatus in a classroom giving the teacher greater freedom. Cleaning used utensils is another of the duties. Physics and chemistry laboratory materials and apparatus are put out for pupil use

by the squad. Capable squad members are usually set to work building various projects which may be exhibited at fairs or used as demonstrations in the classroom. In all these duties the squad is constantly under the supervision and direction of the laboratory assistant.

The advantages of squad membership are many. One is the learning of the meaning of actual responsibility for a given task. The pupil is given a definite assignment and is held strictly accountable for it. In this way, the pupil learns that he cannot shirk a given job but must carry it through to the end. A squad member learns discipline. The pupil knows he must do his assigned work regardless of his inclination to do other things. He also learns the value of order in doing the particular assignments he receives; "fooling around" is not tolerated. The conduct of squad members is usually exemplary. They are set up as an example for other pupils, as pupils picked and chosen from the many, and, as such, they must not receive any misconduct reports.

Another advantage for the squad member is the knowledge that on completing his school course he will have a foundation on the basis of which he can compete for many positions for which the average pupil is not trained. If, in particular, the job is to

be in a laboratory, he knows that he is familiar with chemical terminology which he could never have learned in the classroom. This knowledge he acquires because of the assistance he has given the teachers in the department while they were using non-classroom materials and apparatus. Another advantage is the pupil-teacher relationship that is established. The members of the squad come into intimate contact with the department teachers. The close association results in a helpful and friendly spirit which the average pupil may find hard to obtain.

The benefits to the school are many. Squad members, while not necessarily honor students, are students who try to do their best class work. They try to learn. Disciplinary action against them is hardly ever needed; their class conduct is good; they are fine school citizens. They have learned responsibility and discipline.

In conclusion we may state that a well run, efficient science squad presents a fine means of training pupils to be good citizens of the school and of the community.

RUBIN R. MILLER.
Far Rockaway High School.

PRELUDE TO CHARACTER TRAINING

It is a well-known axiom that if you wish to influence a person you must first get him to like you. On rare occasions, adults

yield to better reasoning without being swayed by emotional factors. But even logic and statistics may prove fruitless if a harsh, sneering voice and antagonistic attitude are concomitants. People are more amenable to suggestion when a warm, friendly relationship exists between them and those who would influence them.

This, of course, is truer in the case of children who respond more to an emotional rather than a rational appeal. How to establish this rapport between their pupils and themselves should be of great concern to teachers since it is the starting point in the development of good character.

Many of our best intentions, our finest educational principles and techniques, our most conscientious efforts often remain unproductive of results because a spirit of friendliness, a sense of humor and a proper approach are lacking. We fail to recruit the valuable assistance of a cheerful countenance, an attitude of interest, kindness, and helpfulness.

The following suggestions are neither new or startling. They are a re-statement of ideas we often lose sight of, but which have proved beneficial in attaining this rapport.

1. Be cheerful and friendly. Some teachers maintain a stern visage and demeanor, never relaxing from that stiffness which creates a gap between them and their pupils. Smiling and being cheer-

ful in the classroom, greeting and nodding to students in the hallway and on the street help to create good feeling. Remember, attitudes are contagious. I have seen teachers refuse to acknowledge a student's greeting on the street, and in some cases have heard the remarks of the pupils which revealed their disappointment or resentment.

2. Be observant. Comment occasionally on a pupil's fine appearance. Ask a pupil who has just returned from an illness, how he feels. Ask an Irish pupil who has been absent on St. Patrick's Day, how he celebrated the occasion. Did the Jewish students endure the fasting on the Day of Atonement with difficulty? How did the students spend the summer vacation, the Christmas holiday, and so forth.

3. Be helpful. Don't leave the newspaper or magazine you have finished reading in the train or bus. Bring it with you to school and give it to some student who does not subscribe to any paper. Not only will he appreciate it, but by presenting him with a paper that is better than the one he reads, you may be instrumental in elevating his tastes in reading matter.

4. Avoid a display of temper. Using strong language has a bad effect and habitual shouting has no effect. Pupils are impressed by a firm and dignified manner. Watch your voice. A harsh,

bristling voice grates on the nerves.

5. Reason with the student. Avoid being arbitrary. Explain the whys and wherefores of school regulations. Let him see the need for them and the consequences of being without them. Then invite his coöperation. I have found this helpful in discussing care of school property and cleanliness of body and building. Pupils who understand the underlying reasons of laws are more likely to comply with them.

6. Inculcate a feeling of responsibility and self-reliance; the former by means of special tasks, the latter by appealing to the sense of propriety. At the beginning of the term when the question of leaving the room arises, I usually say something to this effect. "In the elementary school children must receive permission to leave the room. In the colleges, students leave whenever they desire. No permission is needed. Why?" (Elicit the answer). "In this class we can follow either procedure. Which would you prefer?" They naturally prefer the latter. "Very well," I reply. "That's as it should be. I hope that we shall not have to change this plan because boys will abuse the privilege." And very few do. They love being treated like grown-ups.

7. Aim for correction rather than punishment. Punishment that seeks to vent the spleen of the

teacher and give him the satisfaction of causing the pupil trouble, always has a bad aftermath. The pupil then takes a dislike to the teacher and may become more defiant and troublesome either openly or surreptitiously.

When a pupil who has been disorderly reports after school, I chat with him about his home, friends, activities, choice of a career. Sometimes I offer him a choice between detention and reading a book. Usually he prefers the latter. I try to assign a book that is both entertaining and instructive and has some moral value. If the pupil has indicated a choice of a career, I suggest a related book.

One such boy had expressed a desire to become a farmer, and I assigned a book which tells of the rigors of farm life. I asked him to report one week later. He came, told me about the book, and confessed it had opened his eyes. He was not so sure he wanted to become a farmer after all. We discussed other occupations. I suggested that he see me again, and before long we were on the best of terms.

8. Utilize Study Hall opportunities. I frequently announce that I shall be glad to assist boys needing help with their studies. Some students take advantage of this offer and bring up their math, science, foreign language and other problems. I endeavor to guide the student to find the so-

lution. When I cannot solve the problem, I confess, and call upon other students studying the same grade of the subject to assist. Such a spirit of helpfulness is appreciated by the pupil.

9. Have occasional, brief, informal discussions. Why do children respond so quickly and intensely to the movies, radio, comics? Simply because they love the suspense, the humor, the drama of a situation. That is why the more stirring aspects of school subjects must be used to introduce a topic and maintain pupil interest. If certain subjects or topics do not of themselves possess these qualities, then extraneous episodes might be introduced.

The period might very well begin with a provoking question, a statement, or a story. One day, as soon as the monitor had taken the attendance, I held up a magazine, and remarked: "I have just finished an interesting article entitled *Are Criminals Born or Made?* I would like to hear your opinions on this subject." Immediately up went many hands. We were told about the evils of slums, bad companions, poverty, lack of community centers and playgrounds, influence of heredity, and so forth.

The pupils were enthusiastic, attentive, and eager to give their opinion. After four or five minutes, I remarked: "I was pleased to hear such sensible views.

You will be interested to know that your opinions are practically the same as those of the article."

What was the result of that brief, informal discussion? The period had begun in an interesting way, a worthwhile topic had been discussed, a spirit of friendliness had been created between pupil and teacher, and a desirable mind-set had been attained for the work to come.

We have discussed such diverse topics as: Personality, Public and Private Property, Interesting Places to Visit in N. Y. C., Careers, News Items, Safety, Movies, Books, Health, Hobbies, and many others. Presented in an interesting manner and in an informal atmosphere, such brief discussions might have beneficial effects in the inculcation of good character.

The establishment of cordial and friendly relations between teacher and pupil is the first step in the development of good character.

DAVID SHULMAN.

Boys High School.

SUPPLEMENTARY DEMONSTRATIONS ON SULPHURIC ACID

1. CONTACT PROCESS:

In some schools, the sulphur trioxide is collected in sulphuric acid. In our demonstration the SO_3 is collected in water and the presence of the H_2SO_4 shown by the litmus and barium chloride tests. The first method gives no

evidence of H_2SO_4 production. The second method shows the principle involved but does not explain the necessity for the formation commercially of fuming sulphuric acid.

By combining two suction bottles or test tubes in series—the first with water and the second with H_2SO_4 —it is possible to combine the best features of both of these methods. Furthermore, the necessity for the use of H_2SO_4 as a solvent is clearly shown since the undissolved fumes of SO_3 above the water disappear completely in the second bottle containing H_2SO_4 .

If the objection that most of the SO_3 has been dissolved by the water before going to the acid be raised, then the flasks may be used in parallel or they may be used separately. The flask with water may be used first and the presence of the fumes indicated. The absence of the fumes when sulphuric acid is used then shows the reason for its use.

2. DEHYDRATION

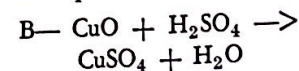
The addition of large crystals of blue vitriol to concentrated sulphuric acid shows its dehydrating power clearly. The surface of the crystal starts to turn white quickly and in a short while a greenish white residue is all that is left of the crystal. The decomposition of blue vitriol crystals by heat in testing for water of

crystallization lays the groundwork for this experiment.

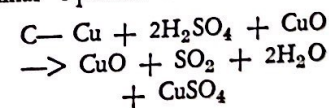
3. OXIDATION

The action of hot concentrated sulphuric acid on copper has long been difficult of demonstration and explanation. At first attention should be drawn to the bright red of the copper. By heating the acid slowly it is possible for the pupils to see the black deposit of copper oxide forming. Heating a piece of copper in the air will show them that copper oxide has been formed. The odor of sulphur dioxide can then be detected and will lead to partial equation A— $\text{Cu} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{CuO} + \text{SO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$.

The acid then starts to turn a blackish green. If this is not readily seen, pouring a little of the acid into water will show the greenish color. Reference to the previous experiment on dehydration will show the pupils that copper sulphate is being formed. Partial equation B explains



Then by adding the two equations and cancelling the CuO the final equation is obtained.



JOSEPH F. CASTKA.

Boys' High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

THE CAFETERIA AS AN OPPORTUNITY FOR DIRECT TRAINING IN CITIZENSHIP

To many teachers, a cafeteria assignment is a challenge and an opportunity to develop worthy character traits. There we can stress good table manners, controlled conversation, care of school property, consideration for others, and courteous relationships between boys and girls. Freed from the formal routine of the classroom, the cafeteria period offers a better chance for more intimate contacts between pupil and teacher.

As subject class and prefect teachers, it is natural for us to forget the larger objectives of education on account of the strain of covering required syllabi under tense conditions and the necessity for clerical and other duties.

If we accept as one of the primary aims of education the training for citizenship or for coöperative living and leadership, then we must take into account the following principles: (1) that we teach pupils as well as subjects; (2) that cultural and vocational training does not necessarily prepare our students for the part of an active-minded citizen.

How much carry-over is there in our teaching of social sciences, hygiene, athletics, home economics,

bookkeeping, secretarial studies, and other subjects, when some students at times do such things as deliberately destroy dishes and bottles; bend forks; break chairs; leave crumbs and litter on tables and floors; make loud raucous noises? On one occasion, I saw a boy knock a chair down at dismissal. When he walked by without picking it up, I stopped to ask him if he would do such a thing were he at home. After a slight pause, he answered, "No." On further inquiry, I discovered he was a senior. Isn't there something lacking in our education when, after four years of training, a student shows such indifference to public property?

I recall the case of a student who was habitually insolent, disorderly, and inconsiderate. He had been in trouble elsewhere in the school. During the course of my interviews with him, I learned that he was anxious to study law. When I informed this young man that the Bar Examiners would call for his high school record, he quieted down considerably.

How does the cafeteria period offer us a great opportunity for direct training for citizenship? First, it gives us a chance to utilize actual situations for promoting a change in habit or a change in

attitude. What could be more natural for motivating our teaching? We must strike while the iron is hot right there while we are on duty. It is true we cannot reach all the students, but reaching a few is better than being cynical and reaching none.

Second, our cafeteria squad gives our students an opportunity for growth through service and assumption of responsibility. On occasion, I have seen a cafeteria period managed by the officers and monitors, with no teacher present. The officers of the squad are chosen with care. At regular conferences, they and the monitors are made to feel their responsibility by a free exchange of opinions on problems seeking solution. Because of the large number on the squad and because it is difficult to get reliable and intelligent pupils to serve, some of our monitors are not what we would like them to be; but with the help and encouragement of teachers, we are improving the work of our squad.

Third, the conduct in the cafeteria should be used as an additional criterion by a prefect teacher in rating the citizenship of his pupils. Some teachers have already made it a practice to notify prefect teachers of anti-social conduct in the cafeteria.

Fourth, by keeping a file in my office, I am able to tell whether a boy's conduct in the cafeteria either

improves or deteriorates from the date of his first offense.

In conclusion, let me say that my object in writing this has not been to convey the impression that our cafeteria is not better than the average high school cafeteria but to indicate to you the possibilities of such a period for training some of our students to be more coöperative and more considerate human beings.

DAVID TROSTEN.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

CIVICS TO IMPROVE CITIZENSHIP

No one can challenge the statement that failure in Civics is a hindrance to good citizenship, particularly when the failure is due to immaturity, inability to read, confusion in a new environment, and even to indifference caused by repetition of much of the subject matter taught in the elementary schools. Repetition of the subject is no cure for these causes of failure; rather, it leads to dislike of the subject, unhappiness in the present, discouragement for the future and, perhaps, truancy and delinquency.

To make Civics a positive force in creating good citizenship, the Girls' Commercial High School has, for the last seven terms, advanced all pupils in first term Civics without regard to their final

mark, except those absent twenty per cent of the term, who failed to make up the work. A strongly motivated, honest explanation of the plan is given to the children at the opening of the term. Citizenship, they are told, is a life subject. They cannot be given a final credit or failure for the subject at the end of the first term. They can receive credit for school citizenship only upon graduation.

The child who fails to understand the text book and classroom lessons of the first term may grow into an understanding of them as he grows older—and show that understanding by excellent day-by-day school citizenship. If he does this, the grade adviser, the dean, and his prefect may decide at the close of the third year not to ask him to take the special senior class in Social Problems. If his citizenship record is unsatisfactory to them, he will be placed in this special class in the seventh or eighth term. The children who fail in Civics have the marks recorded in the usual way and a blue star placed on the front of the permanent record as a signal to all their teachers that particular care should be taken in evaluating their school citizenship and in recording that evaluation for the later guidance of the dean and grade adviser in their choice of students for the Senior Social Problems Class. The decision to place the child in this class should be based on habitual performance,

not on any single act. As an example of how a very bright child, who lost credit for Civics I by cutting illustrations from her text and then lying about the matter, is now re-establishing her citizenship, I submit the following statement made by an instructor last term in fifth term history:

"M—— R——, who received a failure in Civics I, has done excellent work this term and shown a fine spirit of coöperation in the classroom. (Signed) ——"

This child is a very bright girl. Her offense was committed that she might have the best notebook in class. Her father and mother came to school about the matter. All three learned that other things than marks have value and the girl may well have her citizenship mark restored without work in the Senior Social Problems Class.

The child who has done well in the classroom work of the first term is warned that the deferred credit mark recorded on the reverse side of his permanent record will not be given to him if he shows himself a poor citizen in action. Throughout the three years of the course, the Principal in the assemblies, the Dean in conferences, and the prefects and other teachers remind the children of this continuing course in citizenship. A girl with a record of cutting, stealing absence slips, and forging teachers' signatures, automatically loses her credit for Civics I, and places herself in line for the

Senior Social Problems Class.

The Civics I teachers think that the work is done just as well as if the dreaded failure stood at the end of the way. My own experience in teaching two classes leads me to agree with them. As a result of supervising all Civics classes, I feel that the children respond to the confidence placed in them and the chance given to them to grow up to the subject, and I feel that Civics teaching in Girls' Commercial is definite social service work, enthusiastically taught and learned. In seven terms we have saved 622 children from retardation in the first term.

Last term we had our first Senior Social Problems Class of about thirty girls selected by the Dean and Grade Advisers of the seventh and eighth terms. Of course, the girls resented being required to take the extra class, but before the term was over, four girls, who had so improved that the Principal offered to excuse them forthwith, refused to drop the class. The course was well-motivated in the beginning. The girls were at once made conscious of their failure to live up to their obligations, and of the rare opportunity of such an adjustment course. The work in the class is no mere repetition of that of the first term. It does re-train in political citizenship, but it also discusses social and economic problems that the girls will face on leaving school. It personalizes and

individualizes instruction. Really, all students would benefit by such a course. The basic text used was Rugg's "Introduction to Problems of Changing American Culture." Social and behavior problems were also discussed in class. The young teacher who took the class from the principal is still in contact with these girls, who have occasional parties at her house.

It is far too early to attempt to judge the value of the class, but we have high hopes of it. Of the value of saving 622 first-term students from retardation who would not improve their citizenship, I have no doubt at all, and the enthusiastic classes I have visited are the best proof that threat of failure is not needed to spur on children if the subject is well-motivated and well taught.

That we take liberties with the Civics syllabus I won't deny. Factual details that are not necessary to general ideas, attitudes, and practices of good citizenship, are skimmed and more time is given to the need for better food and drug laws. The problem of water taxes rather than the details of water purification concerns us, that water may be plentiful and cheap for the sake of health, and that commercial users pay in proportion to the amount of water used in their profitable businesses.

We try very hard in the first term to shift emphasis so that the course may seem a new one—not

in any sense a repetition of the elementary school work. Our students follow newspaper discussions, report on "A Hundred Million Guinea Pigs," "Skin Deep," "An American Chamber of Horrors," "Your Money's Worth," "Microbe Hunters." By this emphasis on extra text-book work, by lantern work, and field trips, we try to vitalize the course and to prove the thesis that Civics is really a course in life citizenship that is carried on day by day in the outside world, as well as in the school world.

Undoubtedly, the work in Civics in the elementary school and that in the high school should be better articulated. The same subject name should not be used in both places and the material should be divided, not repeated in whole or in part. The new environment should offer new problems and new stimuli. The new school should do its part in making Civics effective in promoting good citizenship by making it an active continuing course in school citizenship for four years, and by ceasing to penalize the first-term child for immaturity, lack of reading ability, and lack of direction in a new environment.

The success of the experiment demands continuous coöperative publicity and enforcement by the administration that the Civics project may be a live force in the child's school life, not merely a formula on paper; it demands, too,

that the children be made enthusiastic partners in it; that the Civics teaching be given to skilful teachers who realize that perhaps seventy per cent of these children will have no further direct instruction in citizenship. It demands that the Senior Social Problems Class, regarded at first as a punishment, be so alive and so vital, that the students understand, appreciate, and use the opportunity for re-training and adjustment that the class offers, and that a class spirit be developed that will draw them back to reunion with the class and the teacher when opportunity offers; for these are the students who need continuing contact with a socializing agency. Under these circumstances, Civics teaching becomes a vital force in purposeful education—a force for improvement of and practice in effective citizenship.

The decision as to whether the high school should give a diploma to a child who does not show effort and re-training in the Senior Social Problems class does not rest with the History and Civics Department, but a school policy in regard to this question must be settled that the children may be honestly told what is or is not at stake. It is also true that individuals will differ in opinion on the child, and the question of who is to make the decision must also be settled. Personally, I do not believe diplomas should be given to children who are habitually dis-

honest, discourteous, and non-coöperative, even though their parents do suffer. I feel that the suspension of the diploma for six months and the requirement that the child report to an evening re-training class once a fortnight, might do much to remold the child's values and those of the parents, and would give the child at least one social contact that demanded standards. I should like to see this experiment tried as an attempt to extend the influence of the school to those who need it most, and as an effort to develop a realization of the meaning of good citizenship in action, as well as in theory.

MAUDE D. KIVLEN.
Girls' Commercial High School.

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Should each school subject have distinctive objectives, cleave to them, and not encroach on the distinctive preserves of other subjects? Should the social studies be charged distinctively with the creation of understandings and attitudes, while foreign language study devotes itself distinctively to the creation of specific skills? "Yes," said Wilbur F. Murra, Harvard Graduate School of Education, speaking for the social studies; "No," said James B. Tharp, Associate Professor of the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Ohio State University. Each speaker was presenting his views, not necessarily a consensus of opinion of

the professional area he represented, at a sectional meeting of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction on March 1, 1938, at Atlantic City. The meeting was jointly sponsored by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers and the National Council for the Social Studies.

That the distinctive aims of the social studies toward understandings and attitudes might be subordinate or incidental aims of foreign language study, and that both areas have in common many subordinate aims, Murra was willing to admit. He concluded, "It behooves teachers in each field first of all to concentrate upon promoting their pupils' attainment of the distinctive objectives of their field and to avoid losing sight of those objectives by giving too much direct attention to their subordinate objectives, which may well be the distinctive objectives of other fields."

This disposal of the social aims of foreign language study will be accepted only by those who look upon the subject as a tool skill available to a gifted few who may pursue the study to the level of an art performance. Even reserving such practical interests to the gifted few, and admitting that certain methods and content are obligatory to promote intellectual and aesthetic interests in the very pursuit of the subject by a more-inclusive, less-selective student body, the

teachers of foreign languages insist that their subject as now conceived has a major aim in the establishment of a valid social outlook for American boys and girls. The extent to which this aim is accomplished will depend on the facilities of a school, the enrollment and the needs of the pupils. "There will remain," concluded Tharp, "courses under certain circumstances in which the stress will be frankly linguistic with little time for immediate cultural content; there will be equally valid circumstances to warrant courses that are mainly cultural, largely in English with only secondary attention to performance in the foreign language. If we can conceive of an appreciation level of the study, there may be an orientation stage in the form of a *language-arts survey* of the contributions of other languages and cultures to our own language and culture, taught in the medium of English in close connection with the English course."

In the panel discussion of teachers in service the view was taken by Paul B. Diederich and S. P. McCutchen that no logical allocation of objectives could be practiced in the child-centered school; the problem rather was to find the things necessary for the child and have them done by the most available person to get them done! Theodore Huebener would place the social purposes of foreign language study first, to be achieved

with well-chosen content of significant social application while as much language skill is being obtained as circumstances will permit. To him a wide use of reference materials in English and the presence of a language orientation course would furnish enrichment to the school program and would come within the foreign language curriculum where the teacher has had a better chance to secure the background of equipment. Harry Heller believed in the social enrichment from foreign language study but would be frank enough to give the name of social studies to a course mainly in English that would admit four-fifths of the school body, even if taught by the foreign language teacher. McCutchen was not interested in distinctive names so long as an educative experience resulted in terms of actual behaviors that should characterize a person. After all, it is in the person of the teacher that real integration exists or does not exist, according to Elmina Lucke and J. Burroughs Stokes. Social returns cannot help accruing from a foreign language course taught well, with all that that implies in the person and equipment of the teacher.

The panel chairman, Burton P. Fowler, Headmaster of Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware, summed up the discussion as accepted by the group by saying, in part: "There is a contribution the

foreign languages can make to the enrichment of the social understanding of a country that cannot be made by the social studies teacher. After all, we do not need to be concerned about primary aims and secondary aims, but about those common aims to be achieved through the special skills and techniques and materials that are available in various fields; and through it all, the personality of the teacher and the method, the process of doing, have a vital consideration. Objectives will never be identically achieved; they will be differently developed by contacts in each different field."

The chairman of the section, Stephen L. Pitcher, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, St. Louis Public Schools, announced that a mimeographed report of the proceedings would be prepared, to contain the papers of both speakers and a stenographic report of the panel discussion.¹

JAMES B. THARP.

¹Send 50 cents to James B. Tharp, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. (Include 5 cents for bank charges on checks.)

POWER OF THE PRESS

We had spent several weeks on a newspaper project. We weren't snobs, we had included all the papers. On the first day we had played detective with a pair of scissors. "The Naval Plan" was the culprit we were tracing and we found references to it on the

front pages, in the editorials, in the foreign news, in the photographs, in the cartoons, in the interviews, in the political columns, and even on the financial page. We devoted a blackboard to each paper and tacked up all the information on this one topic under each paper's name. Teacher didn't have to point out the best paper; it did that for itself. So, onward we went, comparing editorials on the same topic in various papers, making the acquaintance of the columnists and, in general, carrying on with the project.

Then, behold, the book room opened and we received "Julius Caesar." There we were back in Rome, a land without a newspaper. The class had become accustomed to using scissors so they continued to bring in clippings. How to tie this all up with "Julius Caesar"? Slowly the idea formed. What would the *Times* think of Caesar's rulership? What would Dorothy Thompson think of Brutus? What would "The Voice of the People" say about Caesar's murder? Soon, in spite of ourselves, we wound them all together and created a Roman newspaper. It was *The Roman Scroll*. Our particular issue appeared the morning after Mark Antony's speech. There was a wild battle before we chose the editor. We had three candidates for the office. One favored Brutus and the conspirators and was against Caesar. The second favored Mark An-

tony and favored Caesar, while the third ignored Brutus and concentrated on denouncing Antony as "a political puppet whom the hands of Caesar stretched forth from the grave to manipulate." The third was elected, and hence the policy of the paper was established. The composing room began to hum. The front page needed straight reports on the speech, interviews with Antony and Octavius, and reports on the riots of the citizens. We had more than enough work for everyone in the class. The editorial itself was a masterpiece. It was entitled, "Sic Semper Tyrannus." It stated "the riot was instigated by Marcus Antony, the late Caesar's court jester, who by giving half baked arguments and by the using of rhetorical tricks, incited the mob." We had cartoons showing the Romans being led along by the Pied Piper, Mark Antony (in a toga). We had a political column, selected by competition among the students, which was entitled, "Tiber's Tide." It pointed out that "Caesar's will gave money and parks to the people because 'you can't take it with you!'" The financial page was represented by a graph which showed the rise in price of grain, occasioned by the oncoming civil war.

Finally, the topic seemed exhausted. The teacher was just about to sigh with relief when her Frankenstein monster, in the per-

sons of four boys, presented itself at her desk. "Now that we've done a real good Roman paper, couldn't we make up a tabloid for the Romans? You know, a sort of burlesque?" When last seen the teacher was disappearing under the desk proclaiming, "Julius Caesar, thou art mighty yet."

GERALDYN DELANEY.
Seward Park High School.

AN EXPERIMENT IN CREATIVE WRITING

Being a firm believer in the importance of creative writing and its close correlation to a real appreciation of poetry, I determined to test theory in a typical junior high school situation. The classes I used for my experiment were 7A1, 9B2 and 9B4, aggregating approximately 120 pupils, ranging in age from 11 to 15 years and in I. Q. from 85 to 115.

In my preliminary survey, I found that very few of the children liked poetry; that the great majority considered it tedious and difficult and that only two of the entire group had ever attempted to compose a poem. Accordingly, I spent a few periods in an attempt to remove any bias they might have and to cultivate in them a favorable attitude. In the 9B2 class, composed entirely of older boys, I spoke of the heroism of Joyce Kilmer, Rupert Brooke, and others. Then I read aloud some exciting selections from their works and I

challenged them to find better poems in their literature books. The colorful, vivid narratives, the martial rhythms and the sheer adventure of the poems caught their fancy. In the 7A1 class, a mixed group of younger and brighter children, I read selections from Untermeyer's "Today and Tomorrow," chiefly whimsies of De la Mare, rhythmic ballads of Noyes and Masefield, and dialect poems of T. E. Daly. The response in this class was even more enthusiastic and widespread. In the 9B4 class, a commercial unit chiefly composed of older girls, I found romantic themes stirred the most interest, e.g., "The Highwayman," by Alfred Noyes.

Having aroused their curiosity and interest to a desirable pitch and having exhausted the possibilities of the text books which were rather inadequate, I requested volunteers to cull the poems they liked from magazines, newspapers, library books. I suggested the composition of a class anthology—in the event that they found poems to interest one another. They deluged me with material. Many read scores of poems at home and wished to read them in class. To satisfy all and yet save time, I allowed each to read his best selection, preferably at the beginning of a period, and the class decided as to its value and admission to the prospective anthology. Each pupil wrote or printed or typed

his choice and illustrated it. The artists in the class made covers of folders and suitably illustrated them. The class voted on the name of the anthology, selected the best folder; a committee arranged the selections in order of merit and the anthology of each class was a fait accompli.

Having been pleased with the results of the work so far, I embarked on the creative phase of the experiment. The ground had been cultivated to some extent and, if the soil were rich, perhaps something would grow. I used a composition period to begin. First I read some children's poems, selected from various school magazines and I found the children enjoyed them immensely. I told them it was easy to write poetry, to express themselves, and I took some nature scene familiar to all: a night full of stars; and the entire class evolved a composite four-line stanza. I explained in non-technical language the image and the children invented as many as possible immediately. (I must stress the point that the formal elements were presented in conversational style and not as chores to be memorized.)

This procedure was followed in each of the classes. However, feeling that the great majority would fail to compose anything of value (though the real value lay in the effort, itself), I proposed a poetry magazine to be published by the

three classes, working in harmony. Each class elected two members to the Editorial Staff, the title of "Wings" was chosen, and creation was on its way. The editors in each class received contributions and turned them over to me. No child was requested to write for the magazine. All contributions were purely voluntary and all the artists were invited to make a suitable design for the cover of the magazine.

I encouraged all who contributed, made no positive corrections but merely suggested improvements. Some earnest pupils wrote ten poems before one was accepted. Stencils were obtained from the office, and the best artist in each class made a separate cover. More than seventy pupils contributed work of some value and this work they had done at home. The assembling of the paper and remaining routine were handled by the Staff. The school supplied the paper and the boys made 250 mimeographed magazines which were distributed to each pupil in the three classes and to every teacher in the school (this being at the request of the supervisor.)

Considering the type of child, the majority being slow normals, I feel that the undertaking was successful (1) in arousing a truer and wider appreciation of poetry and (2) in fostering the creative urge, however minute, in those children who possessed some meas-

ure of talent. Below I am giving a few selections from "Wings."

STARS

They glide in at the end of day,
Forever bright, forever light—
In no hurry and no delay
They are the Daughters of the Night.

A peaceful dream throughout the day,
A calm blessing through the night!

Antoinette Pizza—9B4

THE MOON'S TROUBLES

The moon in the sky
Said with a sigh,
"It certainly is a shame
And daylight is to blame
That I can't furnish light
All through day as well as night."

The stars all seem to grin
When daylight comes peeping in
I guess they'd like to rest—
All night they've shone their best;
But still I can't see why,
I can't remain in the sky."

But no sooner
Than fair old Luna
Finished her weeping,
Daylight came peeping
To take the place
Of fair Luna's face.

Berenice Larsen—7A1

JOHN LEE MURPHY.

P. S. 136, Brooklyn.

"EMILY POST VISITS THE CAFETERIA"

If, according to the old adage, there are more ways than one to kill a cat, it is equally certain that there are several ways to inculcate good manners among high school students.

This was proved recently by an assembly program given by Manhattan High School of Women's Garment Trades. Called "Emily Post Visits the Cafeteria," it very effectively made clear to the school that there was "one among them taking note."

The skit was introduced by a Student Government officer who presented "Emily Post" to the school. The girl representing the noted authority on etiquette assured the group that she was keenly interested in the welfare of high school girls and, accordingly, had trained a group of actresses to present, in several contrasting scenes, good and poor form in public eating places. She added that she hoped the assembly would derive not mere enjoyment from the skit but instruction as well.

Thereafter, in several scenes, our girls were shown the impression they made on others.

On a stage set to represent the school cafeteria, a student, by means of placards, got across to the audience various phases of lunchroom behavior.

Placard I showed "The Lunchroom Rush." A group of students,

screaming, pushing, stealing places in line, refusing to give up vacant chairs which they had reserved made for hilarity on the part of the audience, but the succeeding scene, "The Proper Way to Enter the Lunchroom," caused them to grin knowingly at each other, particularly when a girl who had rudely reserved a chair for an absent friend, now graciously allowed a stranger to sit at her table.

"Lunches from Home," presented unattractive ways of consuming food. In addition to displaying other prominent habits, talkative students, punctuating their remarks by gesticulating with the aid of an enormous dill pickle, gulped down huge roll-sandwiches with difficulty. When the lunch bell rang, these students left on their tables or on the nearby floor, crumbs, paper bags, cord, which had to be removed by the long suffering cafeteria attendants. The contrasting scene showed the students eating daintily-cut sandwiches, placing their napkins on their laps instead of tucking them under their chins and evincing a touching solicitude for the cleanliness of the tables.

An exhibit of lunch wrappings followed. "Emily Post," who from time to time had made suggestions, now asked the audience to signify by its applause which of the four lunch wrappings it preferred. Audible snickers showed the girls' suddenly acquired distaste for the large greasy brown paper bag

which, until recently, they had very complacently carried to school. They jeered as vehemently at the lumpy newspaper lunch bundle which followed. But applause showed their appreciation of the correctness of a neatly tied package or a metal lunch box.

The next placard introduced "Lunches from the Counter." Objectionable methods of eating such as bending the head down to the soup, sharing food or biting from the same apple and drinking from the same cup, loud talking, drumming on the table with cutlery, were contrasted with correct table manners.

The last scene, "Having Fun in the Lunch Room," compared boisterous attempts at dominating a group with more subdued, though not less interesting ways of enjoyment.

Again "Emily Post" offered friendly advice: "You will notice that by not arguing, pushing, nor screaming, these girls have more time to enjoy themselves."

By this time the audience was convinced that there was something to be said for gentle manners and was in a mood to listen attentively to an excerpt from Mrs. Post's book on etiquette. "The guest of the day" pointed out the danger of alienating by bad manners those friends whom the students might make by physical attractiveness or superficial personal charm. Appro-

priately, the closing note was the quotation from Burns: "O, would some God the giftie gi'e us

To see ourselves as ithers see us." Is it too much to ask our readers to believe that, for the present at least, better manners and consideration for others are noticeable in our School Cafeteria?

CAROLYN H. STERN,
Manhattan High School of
Women's Garment Trades.

EXTRACT FROM SPEECH OF MR. JAMES MARSHALL UPON ACCEPTING THE PRESIDENCY OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK—MAY 10, 1938

In assuming the Presidency there is one appeal that I desire to make to every member of this great school system. I regret to notice the increasing bitterness of advocates of different theories of education. It is not the divergence of opinion that bothers me, not even the vigor with which advocates espouse their respective causes. Such differences and such advocacy are inherent in a healthy democracy. Only people who do not believe in democracy, who have no faith in democracy, would oppose opposition or wish to annihilate their opponents. But the bitterness is something to guard against because of the danger that it will lead to dogmatism and close the mind to progress and to that inquiring and

experimental spirit out of which alone progress develops. Bitterness in matters of educational theory is also to be avoided because it so easily slides over into political fanaticism and religious bigotry.

I do not fear that the modern spirit will destroy the moral spirit of men or their moral values. A generation of persecution in Russia, years of cruelty in Germany, have not destroyed those values for the

common man. But, hatred has fanned hatred and distilled the poison which has corrupted tyrants and their yes-men. It is not for tolerance that I am pleading, for that is a negative thing, but for respect for opinions which are antipathetic, with which we disagree, and for that regard for others which is basic to the free interchange of views, without which democracies cannot survive.

Enrollment in the Different Foreign Languages in Evening High Schools as of March 31, 1938

Languages	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Adv.	Total
French	1,291	798	662	622	594	559	27	26	4,759
German	406	291	167	177	86	73	6	5	38	1,249
Hebrew	214	183	35	18	20	470
Italian	633	302	262	144	45	83	12	11	1,492
Latin	391	228	144	141	62	58	1	1	1,026
Spanish	1,788	811	563	702	270	209	14	8	34	4,399
	4,723	2,613	1,833	1,804	1,077	982	60	51	72	13,215

REVIEWS

THE PRODUCTION OF LATE NINETEENTH CENTURY AMERICAN DRAMA

By G. H. Leverton. Teachers College, Columbia. \$1.60.

Dr. Leverton's purpose in disseminating these interesting fossils and outlining her suggestions for reanimating them was to furnish a method for the accurate study and production in schools of plays of this period. Dr. Leverton focuses

her attention largely on the methods of staging of the period, supplemented by investigations into the methods of producing these dramas. One hundred and fifty prompt books and original manuscripts provided the basis for this original and much-needed study.

The period is that of Bronson Howard, Dion Bouicault, Augustin Daly, and James Herne. The grossly sentimental slobbering, ob-

vious melodrama, and declamatory style of acting are its main characteristics. The period is comparatively unexplored, and many of the plays have been lost. Others are available only in private collections.

Dr. Leverton discusses in great detail the physical staging of the period and directional techniques. Acting techniques also come in for some critical consideration: the loud-mouthed rant, the stentorian, over-done rhetoric.

To the schools, this manual offers a fine opportunity to recapture the savor of age which for all its uncouthness deserves to be resuscitated if only for a certain refreshing naiveté it possesses. Here, in this early drama, the pupil acquires an understanding of a part of his past cultural heritage which must forever remain closed to him unless he experiences it through these plays.

A. H. LASS.

AN INTRODUCTION TO MODERN EDUCATION

By Skinner, Langfitt and others.
D. C. Heath. \$2.80.

This is a survey or orientation text written by experts in various fields. While there is no very marked unity of point of view or orientation, there is a certain authoritative ring about the several pronouncements. Among the contributions to this volume are John Withers' "The School as a Social

Institution," Frank Cyr's "School and Community," R. G. Langfitt's "General Scope of Education in the United States," N. W. Newsum's "Control and Support of Public Education," H. H. Horne's "Progress and Philosophy of Education."

In all, this is as dismal and as disappointing a work as has come to us in a long time. The format is exceptionally depressing even for an educational text where beauty is as a general rule subordinated to the raw and unvarnished truth. The frontispiece, which contains photographs of some of our contemporary educational immortals, is enough to slake the thirst of even the most avid reader. The young and impressionable beginner ought never to be allowed to see his gods in such woebegone attitudes.

The absence of certain experts of varying complexions of opinion is almost enough to discredit the whole venture. For the student will certainly get no balanced view of education, and its problems, from the spokesmen here included.

Our sympathies go out to the students who will have to read this text somewhere, sometime, and vainly attempt to gather from its Olympian dullness some of the genuine excitement that makes teaching in America today the adventure and challenge that it is.

A. H. LASS.

CHARACTER AND PERSONALITY OF CHILDREN FROM BROKEN HOMES

By N. Wallenstein. Teachers College, Columbia. \$1.60.

This highly inconclusive study was aimed at determining the character and personality differences of children coming from broken homes. The four hundred odd cases that Dr. Wallenstein fine-combed with an elaborate battery of tests and an impressive number of esoteric statistical techniques yield very scrawny and inarticulate evidence at best. Dr. Wallenstein, in all honesty, is finally forced to the conclusion that coming from a broken home does not necessarily entail a psychological break although certain changes are noticeable.

It is depressing to contemplate the immensely detailed labors that yielded these few crumbs of hardly consoling half-truths. The researcher's lot is certainly not a happy one.

A. H. L.

TEACHING FOR TOMORROW

By Charles Russell. Prentice Hall, \$2.75.

If you palpitantly open this volume, panting for a blue-print of the future, you are going to be cruelly disappointed, as we were. The title is a seductive misnomer. For the author is plainly and unequivocally interested in the present. What he has to say is humbly "presented in a hope that the results may be used for a better to-

morrow." But what that tomorrow is to be is nowhere indicated. Nor is there any very passionate avowal as to how it will rise, Phoenix-like, from the ashes of the present. Neither is there any plan for forging the world of the future from the raw material of the present.

Actually, what we have here is a quite sane and sound treatise on the teaching and learning process, forward-looking in tone and content, neither excessively conservative nor wildly progressive. The best way to teach for tomorrow, Dr. Russell contends, is to insure vivid living in the present. But this is an evasion of the problem. It puts educated man, thus conceived, on a plane with the lower animal forms who are solely and primarily interested in the full present. In some instances, even, it puts us slightly below the beasts and insects of the field. For even the ant and the bee seem to be guided by some dim but compelling vision of the future. The present means nothing for us unless the future is somehow adumbrated in our thoughts and actions. To speak of the future, as Dr. Russell does, in terms of educational purposes, ideals, teaching methods, skill, assignments, supervised study, the Dalton plan, and projects is just so much stale and timid academicism. For implicit, in the teaching for tomorrow must be a conception of the good life and the good society. Neither

teaching nor learning take place in vacuo. Both are inseparable parts of the whole complex of forces we call civilization. From Dr. Russell's discussion, it would appear that tomorrow will be an identical twin of today. The same methods, the same ideals will dominate us, and the content of education will be what it is. Yet Dr. Russell himself does not believe this for in the introduction he hopes for a better tomorrow. What will it be? Will it be hastened by the Dalton or Winnetka plan? Or will it spring full-armed from some project? Or perhaps a little more or a little less supervised study will turn the trick? Maybe the open sesame is freedom within discipline? Maybe it is more pupil purposing that will herald the dawn of a better tomorrow? Frankly, we don't know. Frankly, Dr. Russell doesn't seem to know either although there is no questioning his sincerity. One thing we are certain of, and that is that the mouthing of elegant platitudes, the devising of ingenious methods are not the levers with which to move a bewildered universe into harmony with our deepest (and at present frustrated) hopes and desires. Undoubtedly it will help if we infuse these "unborn men" of ours with the new learning, if we give them the skills and attitudes to fashion order out of chaos. But the job of tomorrow is much bigger than the classroom of today.

Let us be sensible and realize that indispensable as we are to the world, the efficient performance of our tasks will not make of our troubled world a Utopia. Let us build and teach and think for the morrow. But let us not delude ourselves so cruelly. Tomorrow is in the soil of our land, in the blood of our industrial workers, in the turmoil of capital and labor, in the not always steady hearts and heads of our statesmen, in the inarticulate masses, in the vocal minorities. It is our whole people and our total resources and wisdom that are being cast in the alembic of today. If we would know our tomorrow we must be ever conscious of this fact. And our teaching must be shot through with a never-ceasing awareness that we are only a part and maybe a lesser part than we like to imagine, of all this vast ferment.

With Dr. Russell we must part. Good-bye, gentle, well-intentioned pedagogue, with your neat little parcels of methods, your trim categories, your noble sentiments, your lucid treatises, your touching faith, your sensitive understanding of youth and its problems. Good-bye! With James Joyce we leave you for something better than you have given us: "Welcome, oh life! I go to encounter for the millionth time the reality of experience and to forge in the smithy of my soul the increased conscience of my race."

A. H. L.



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GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

In the eyes of the vast majority of pupils, teachers are not ordinary people, with ordinary interests and ideas. In the minds of our pupils, we dwell in another world, like the gods of old. True, we descend from Mount Olympus to mingle with ordinary mortals for a certain number of periods each week, during which we divert their attention from the ordinary, exciting business of living to the confining channels of our specialties. And, in the eyes of our pupils, like the gods of the ancients, we possess certain human attributes. We are moved to righteous wrath and indignation. We single out favorites among the mortals, and are moved to pity and leniency by tears and entreaties. Each of us is a jealous god, and if a mortal worships too ardently at the shrine of another god to the neglect of our specialty, or fails to fulfill his obligations to the pantheon, we are moved to vengeance—and the pupil sees red, on his report card.

Until we have demonstrated to our pupils that we have a genuine, not simulated interest in their affairs, and until we have convinced them that we are human, after all, with real human interests and ideas, they are not really ready to accept us as guides. We can win their respect and confidence by present-

ing worthwhile lessons, which are well planned, motivated, full of human interest, and spiced with a saving sense of humor. We can humanize and motivate our lessons by references to the things which interest our pupils. We can draw upon motion pictures, current events and stimulating radio programs to vitalize our lessons. In economics, for example, the teacher can discuss briefly such motion pictures as *The Good Earth*, *Wells Fargo*, *Diamond Jim Brady*, *The River*, and *Modern Times*. He can refer to the talks of Lowell Thomas, Gabriel Heatter, Boake Carter—and sometimes to the remarks of Eddie Cantor and Charlie McCarthy. From the *March of Time* he can try to entice some of his pupils to attend *America's Town Meeting of the Air*. Not only does this show his pupils that he is aware of the existence of a real and lively world outside of the classroom but it also is guidance of a lasting nature.

He can also win over our pupils to our side by a sincere and genuine appreciation of their efforts. Praise them frequently, but do not smother them under bushels of praise, because praise is subject to the law of diminishing utility. But bring a peck of praise to every class each day, and scatter it judiciously

where it will do the most good. Since everyone wants to be appreciated and important, this procedure pays big dividends in good will. Constant reprimands, scoldings, and sarcasm, on the other hand, are unprofitable and futile, in the long run. The pupils fail to listen, and dream of the interesting world outside.

We can also win the respect and esteem of our pupils if we participate in their activities. It pays to take part in their social affairs at school, to appear at their games and dances, and to provide genuine social activities at their clubs, along with intellectual pursuits. If we do some or all of these things, we begin to appear human in the eyes of the pupils, and we are ready for guidance.

Guidance is the finest aspect of teaching. It leads to changes of a permanent nature in the character of the pupil, his personality, and his philosophy of life. It is a privilege for the classroom teacher to act in his small capacity as a guidance counselor. It is a privilege to be with young people like our boys and girls—individuals who are essentially idealistic and loyal. And genuine teachers show their appreciation of this privilege by their attitude toward their pupils. They are kindly, friendly, altruistic, and willing to aid, even though it involves hours of work on their own time.

In guidance, the method of approach is extremely important. In

her talk at our December meeting Mrs. Muriel McLean, Psychiatric Social Case worker of the Bureau of Child Guidance, said: "In an approach to a youngster, be as non-committal or non-condemning as possible. Get him to feel that you do not know what it is all about, but you do want to understand." It is always well, however, before interviewing the pupil, to gather all information readily available about his personality and educational habits. Consult his permanent record, his personality marks, and the mature teachers with whom he has succeeded. In your search for data, consult the experienced teacher rather than the beginner, for obvious reasons. If your individual is a boy, a talk with his health education teacher may yield a great deal. When the pupil comes to see you, greet him in a friendly fashion, and try to say something pleasant. "Mr. X tells me that you were an excellent pupil in accounting" . . . "Your last test shows that you can think along economic lines, but your facts were weak" . . . Usually the boy or girl will begin to talk about himself or herself. As Mrs. McLean said: "Adolescents are sensitive about themselves and want to be considered important. You will find them only too ready to talk about themselves. Let the child talk about himself. He wants to talk and he wants to have everything to say. Success depends on whether or not the teacher can be a non-condem-

ing referee. If the teacher can keep himself out of the conversation when he is interviewing the youngster and only occasionally asks a question to help the child clarify himself, he will find that he will get a lot more than if he is active in the interview." After the pupil has had his say, we can usually reason with him successfully and get him to see our point of view.

As a classroom teacher, I have found the following methods of guidance rather successful:

1. *The personal conference or interview*—to be successful it should be unhurried, informal. It should take place during your free period, between sessions, or after sessions.
2. *Guidance in methods of study*—in class and in personal interviews. I have pointed out successful methods of study in the social sciences. This is guidance of a lasting nature.
3. *Extra help and review classes*—chiefly for the psychological effect they have on the pupil. This phase of my activities is most frequently mentioned by parents. Every graduation night several parents will thank me for the time I spent outside of class with their children. Graduates—especially those who graduated *magna cum difficultate*—frequently inquire about their former teachers. And who is most

frequently asked for?—Mr. Reisman, who never spared himself to aid his pupils. Ideal review classes permit of individualized instruction. In a crowded school with inadequate space, we frequently have to resort to the lecture method. Mimeographed completion tests—corrected in the presence of the pupils or by the pupils themselves—can be used in our help classes. The review class as a method of guidance is condemned by many as leading to dependence instead of to independence on the part of the pupils, but I believe that its good far outweighs its evils.

4. The classroom teacher in his *section room* has several opportunities for guidance. He can attempt to explain the social significance of school rules and regulations by amplifying notices. He can aid the attendance clerk by attempting to curb absences for petty reasons. He can utilize a portion of the period which his class uses as a study period during assemblies for personal interviews and help. In the past, I have used portions of these study periods, particularly the latter half, when the pupils become restless, to discuss the requirements for entering certain colleges, professions, or occupations.

During the last Girls' As-

scibly, the boys or two section rooms were sent to my class—the period of the assembly was the last of the A.M. Session. Instead of a study period, I decided to have a discussion period—partly to maintain order, and partly to secure data for this talk on guidance. The topic of discussion was "What is a Good Teacher?" We listed the usual points: patience, humor, knowledge of subject matter, tolerance, fairness, stability. But, what impressed me more was their dislikes. And, what did they dislike?

1. References in class or within the pupils' hearing to "the dumb commercials."
 2. Sarcasm.
 3. Feeling that young teachers condemn them because they haven't college educations.
 4. Favoritism — and special privileges to some.
 5. Failure to give extra help.
 6. Indefinite assignments.
 7. Too much lecturing on the part of teachers.
 8. Dull, dry lessons—methods which never vary.
5. *Correlation of your subject with other subjects, and with life*—Consider yourself first and foremost a teacher of civics, point out the social significance of your demands,

show the pupils their responsibilities as good school citizens. Regard yourself also as a teacher of English. Encourage correct habits in writing and speaking. Refer to books in your subject and allied subjects. Try to foster the reading habit. In economics, the teacher may try to encourage his pupils to read books on consumers' problems like *One Hundred Million Guinea Pigs*, *Your Money's Worth*, *Skin Deep*, *Eat, Drink and Be Wary*, *Our Master's Voice*. Refer to good newspapers and magazines. Have an occasional newspaper lesson if the nature of your subject permits it.

6. *Providing interesting club activities*—I am convinced that pupils who participate in club work will improve in their classwork. Last term my Economics Club consisted of twenty-five members, and met twelve times. We discussed current topics and visited places of interest, including the Stock Exchange, the S. S. Dental Works (members of the Department contributing the use of their cars for the purpose), and an ice cream plant. We saw a motion picture and had a Christmas Party. Although my club did not contain the best pupils of the Senior Class (publication staffs met during the same

period), nearly every member improved in his grade in his classwork as the term progressed.

7. *Watching for opportunities for guidance*—Begin your missionary work when a pupil appears restless, starts to cut your class, and seem to be absent too frequently. If reprimands or punishment are necessary, restore to the offender his rights and privileges as soon as possible. If he is a trouble maker, grant him certain responsibilities. It frequently helps.

8. *Stimulating genuine school spirit*—All teachers ought to make a concerted effort to develop genuine school spirit. It is sadly lacking in the cases of some of our pupils, particularly our boys. If a pupil is enthusiastic about his school, he has a reason for wanting to stay, and, as a consequence, his work usually will improve. We teachers can help to create this enthusiasm by participating in the social life of our pupils at school.

Teachers sometimes unthinkingly engage in activities which I should like to term the negation of guidance. Over the lunch table or in the teachers' room, Miss X will discuss that mean, lazy Jones boy, or Smith, the rowdy. When these boys are promoted to another teacher's class, they enter under suspi-

cion. Their new judge is prejudiced; they do not receive a fair trial. Their every misstep is watched, exaggerated. Meanwhile, the rumor that they are "tough customers" spreads. Smith is a "goofer," Jones a "terror." No attempt at guidance is undertaken where a cooperative effort is sorely needed. It seems to me that "goofers" and "gooferettes" are made, not born. So far as their victims are concerned, the teachers might just as well write over their classroom doors, "Abandon hope, all ye who enter here."

Another case of the negation of guidance is illustrated by the case of Mary, related to me by her mother. Mary, an average girl, did poorly in a subject. Let's call it civics. One year later she had the same teacher for history. As the girl entered, the teacher said, "You here, Mary? Let's hope that you'll do better than in civics. You were terrible." The girl failed history. She lost confidence in her teacher.

Another instance of the negation of guidance is the case of a girl who was secretary to a teacher. The incident occurred in the library several terms ago. The secretary, who was copying I. Q.'s, became curious and inquired as to their significance. The teacher explained it, and then looked up the girl's I. Q.—only 105. I thought it was higher. You *seemed* bright to me." The girl was bewildered. Ever since she has been working

hard, attaining a place on the honor roll, in a desperate attempt to live down her I. Q.

Another instance of the negation of guidance is the apparent dislike of some teachers for bright boys who have a tendency to disconcert the teacher by harping on pedantic points in class, and incidentally pointing out little errors that the teacher has made. Such boys, who sometimes "show up" teachers, are generally referred to as pests. If properly handled, however, they would be assets in class. As it is, their irritating manners are not properly brought to their attention and are consequently never corrected. Some teachers apparently do not believe that one character-

istic of an adolescent is to show off. If the boy can't excel in athletics, he demonstrates his prowess to his classmates in tilts with his teacher.

In conclusion, let me emphasize that I realize that I have said very little that is really new. I also feel that you have all engaged, and are engaging in guidance activities similar to those which I have described. My purpose was not to present startling facts, but to make all of us "guidance conscious." If I have succeeded, I may conclude my remarks with a little quotation:

"If so, it is the dawn, not the dusk, of the gods."

EDWARD PREHN.

Port Richmond High School.

GOOD LIBRARIES—AN ESSENTIAL FEATURE OF THE DEMOCRATIC SYSTEM

Since the World War it has become almost commonplace to say that the world of the twentieth century is an economic unit; that conditions in far off China, in Europe, in the heart of Africa, in the South Sea Islands may determine whether many of our people shall earn a livelihood, or shall accept one from charity; that these conditions may determine whether we shall use our wealth to build a constantly improving and humane civilization or to destroy the heritage of the past; and, indeed that our national policies may mean

starvation and intolerable suffering and burdens for people whose names are scarcely known to the average American, and whom we have no wish to injure.

As the economic ties binding all parts of the world have strengthened, inevitably the political and social principles and practices of each nation have come to be of increasing interest and importance to other nations. So it is with us in America. But we have constantly taken it for granted that our democratic ideas must influence other nations, while their less dem-

ocratic ideas will have no effect upon us. We in America have for so long enjoyed the blessings of a democratic society and government, and have assumed, casually perhaps, that the virtues inherent in democracy so far and so obviously outweigh the defects, that it is difficult for us to realize that these democratic institutions, like a great building, will endure to serve our people only so long as the foundations remain strong, and are buttressed against the strains and stresses which a dynamic civilization develops.

What is the foundation? In a democratic nation, it must be an intelligent and educated citizenry whose support of democratic principles arises from reasoned convictions, and whose loyalty to those government agencies, selected by the people to execute the popular will, is based upon the democratic right of intelligent criticism.

How shall we secure this foundation of an intelligent and educated citizenry, able and determined to exercise the right of intelligent criticism? Success in this direction may be measured, not by the extent to which the adult citizen understands the social, political and economic factors and forces, national and international, that enter into the making of government policies, whether they be local, national or world-wide, and the degree to which he takes an active,

intelligent part in controlling the agents of the American democracy, the government.

Education is a continuous process throughout life, a conscious one for many people in certain fields, an unconscious one for every one in many respects. The great purpose of the schools in a democracy is to direct the process in the formative years with the ultimate purpose of developing the ability and power of self-direction. Many personalities, subjects, activities, organizations and social institutions contribute to this training, but for developing the qualities which effective self-direction demands—critical mindedness, intellectual integrity and courage, and the will to exercise these trained faculties in the important duties of citizenship in a democracy, the materials of the modern library are of primary importance. Moreover, the foundation must be built during the school years, and that is the function of the school library.

The starvation policy that has always characterized library finances is based upon the utterly mistaken idea that libraries are the frills of the educational system, that their services are not of such vital importance as class-room instruction, and that the fiction, biography, science, history, poetry, economics, drama, politics, etc.; the vast field of world culture to be found between the pages of their books are not as important tools of educa-

tion, ultimately, as the single text-book and limited class room direction.

A text-book in history—one or two points of view—to develop critical ability! Frequently, not even one copy of a daily paper of good reputation for schools of four to seven thousand pupils, to offset the tabloids in their homes! Five, ten or fewer copies of valuable supplementary books for a Civics, History, and Economics register of four thousand! Meager or no graphic materials—pictures, films, records! Space to accommodate fifty at a time instead of the four times that number that should be there! Almost no opportunity for individual browsing and discovery of the joy and profit to be found in reading! Finally, in addition to the inadequate supply of all materials most necessary to train the critical faculties which each generation must develop if democracy is to endure, there is a staff so small in numbers that it can do little more than the mechanical and clerical work of the library.

It is not that the public and the educational authorities are indifferent, nor are they unwilling to support the services which modern education considers essential. The beautiful buildings, modern equipment, extension of the curriculum, plans for recognition of individual

differences, attention to the handicapped, and a host of other services give striking evidence of sympathetic interest. But the public can not and does not know the needs as do the school people. Ours is the responsibility to talk books, library facilities and services until we have made the public and the leaders of our educational system as conscious of the fundamental part in the educative process which books and libraries must play, as they are now conscious of the need of superior teachers.

It has become axiomatic today that the public schools owe to the children that type of education which best develops each child. How short a time has passed since educators and public accepted the financial difficulties involved in such a program as an insurmountable obstacle!

Let us, as teachers accept the responsibility which is ours, not that of the librarians, to educate the public by a definite and continuous program, in season and out of season, to the end that they shall give that generous financial support for our libraries which will return constantly increasing dividends to the democratic system which is the keynote of our national life.

MARION D. JEWELL.
Washington Irving High School.

WHAT DOES THE AUTHOR MEAN? SOME TRIED AND TESTED DEVICES

There was once a time when students who reached the senior year of high school were scholarly, enthusiastic, and intelligent. They could read Shakespeare, Browning, Shelley, and Keats and derive both pleasure and profit from them. They were active in class, participating eagerly in the discussions. They were a joy to teach!

But in recent years, because of the rapidity of social and economic changes, a marked difference is apparent in the calibre of the students. Unable to secure positions, many now remain in high school regardless of the fact that they have neither the inclination nor the ability to fulfill the requirements. No longer can the majority interpret and appreciate the great masters. No longer are they willing to devote their time to wrestling the thought from the printed page.

The course of study, however, remains the same. Students must be taught to read intelligently. Without desire, though, learning is impossible. Why not give them the desire, then? When one considers the remark a wise old farmer once made, "There's a hard wind blowing — which helps if you're going in the right direction" he discovers that the task

is not so difficult after all. There are plenty of "hard winds blowing" to the rescue, if only one takes advantage of them. First, it is important to realize that teaching techniques must be modified for the new type of student. Then one looks about for the "hard winds" to aid him on the way. Discovery is close at hand. With a world full of radio, music, art, motion pictures, a wealth of material lies at the beck and call of the wide awake teacher. How easy the study of Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar* becomes when daily the papers blare forth the news of dictators the world over! How realistic the mob scenes appear when one reads the exploits of demagogues who spring up overnight! How simple the task of motivating the drama when Orson Welles is on Broadway! The alert teacher, recognizing the worth of daily occurrences, uses them to enliven and enrich each lesson.

Literary gems are constantly being placed within reach of all students by production on the legitimate stage, in the motion pictures, and over the radio. When students have witnessed a performance, seen a picture, or heard a broadcast, they immediately realize that the words of the playwright come alive and that "litera-

ture is a closed book to those that cannot read." The desire to learn comes with such a discovery, and then the foundation has been laid for creative reading, one of the most important techniques for getting the author's full meaning. The following devices, tried and tested in the classroom, have proven most effective for this type of teaching.

It is most important that students be able to set the poem or story if they are to appreciate it to the full. "The curtain rises" is an excellent device for establishing the opening picture and developing the imagination. Suppose the class is studying Shelley's *Ozymandias*. Ask the class to set the stage. When the curtain rises, what will the audience see? This *can* be done orally, but supplemented by a blackboard sketch, it will be much more effective. Tell the pupils to supply plenty of color to the picture. It is amazing how the sonnet will become clear to them as soon as they visualize it.

When the curtain rises on Tennyson's *Ulysses*, pupils will suggest barren crags, a ship in full sail leaving the shore, a castle to one side before which sits an aged man, restless and eager to be off again as he watches the ship pass beyond the horizon.

Unless the curtain rises on *My Last Duchess* the meaning of the monologue will be lost to the class. Here they must see a mag-

nificently furnished entrance hall, art treasures, a fine central stairway at the top of which is a full length portrait of the duchess. They must imagine many guests, hear the hum of voices, see the duke and the envoy at the head of the stairs, and then they are ready to approach the poem with genuine feeling.

Rossetti's *The Blessed Damsel* is a difficult poem, but when the curtain rises, and the students suggest a revolving stage—one for the lady in heaven and the other for the lover on earth, much of the mystery is cleared up. Then they realize why the poet placed the parentheses around certain lines—the stage set changes when those lines are read.

Continue the visual image by having the class prepare a series of tableaux or illustrations wherever possible throughout the poem. How can the artist escape the magnificent pictures in *The Blessed Damsel*? Let the pupils know that in his time Rossetti was also a famous artist. Then they will appreciate the following lines which explain vividly how easily the poem could be illustrated:

The blessed damsel leaned out
From the golden bar of heaven
Her eyes were deeper than the
depth

Of water stilled at even:
She had three lilies in her hand
And the stars in her hair were
seven.

or
Her hair that lay along her back
Was yellow like ripe corn.

And the souls mounting up to
God
Went by her like thin flames.
Let the students draw the pictures or construct models. Graphic illustrations are as valuable as oral interpretation.

It is a common belief among the students that teachers will accept as the right answer only that which has been said in plain words by the author. Therefore, they rarely do more than reproduce the poems or stories that they read. No activity occurs in the brain! Like sponges they absorb the words and phrases, and when the appropriate time arrives, they glibly rehash the whole situation.

By restoring the confidence of the pupils, much in the way of independent thinking can be accomplished. Encouraging them to give their own reactions is the first definite step to take. Rewording questions so that the pupil is permitted to give his own ideas will be a help. When once the barrier of fear is removed, a surge of delight will accompany each individual interpretation. No greater joy will crown the teacher's efforts than when she sees the student animated and elated over a discovery or puzzled and perplexed at lack of complete understanding.

An interesting approach toward

this development of independent thinking and creative imagination is that of finding stories between the lines.

The Father, a short story by Bjørnsen, offers splendid opportunity for interpretation and interpolation. It is not uncommon to hear students say: "I've read the thing three times, and still I don't understand it." Read to the class:

The man of whom this story tells was the richest in the parish. His name was Thord Overaas. He stood one day in the pastor's study, tall and serious. "I have gotten a son," he said, "and wish to have him baptized."

"What is to be his name?"

"Finn, after my father."

"And the sponsors?"

They were named and proved to be the best men and women of Thord's kin in the district.

"Is there anything else?" asked the pastor, looking up.

Thord hesitated a moment. "I should like to have my son baptized alone," he said.

"That is to say on a weekday?"

"On Saturday next, at twelve o'clock, noon."

"Is there anything else?" asked the pastor.

"There is nothing else," answered Thord, taking his cap to go.

"Just one word," said the pastor, as he arose, stepped over to

Thord, took him by the hand, and looked him in the eye: "God grant that this child may be a blessing to you."

Sixteen years later Thord again stood in the pastor's study.

Ask the class to describe the boy, the boy's mother, his home life during those sixteen years. They will be dumbstruck! How can they, when the author did not tell them anything at all about these things? But gradually first one hand will be raised, then another, and finally a class will be bubbling over with enthusiasm. Through this discussion again the story comes to life, and pupils realize that it is what the author did not say that makes the story great. Try the line, "But the son rolled backward, gave his father one long look—and sank." Get the pupils to tell what was in that last long look. The results will be amazing. Then, and then only, will they understand what an art it is to be able to say so little and imply so much!

"Between the lines" is excellent for Barrie's play, *Quality Street*. Ask for a scene that might have taken place in Phoebe's room when she lets down her curls and stands before a mirror; or Susan's love story; or the picnic with V. B. By their creating real situations for these characters, they will understand the play so much better.

By this method, too, a pupil also learns how to evaluate details. In

A Tale of Two Cities he must not overlook such lines as "Recalled to life! Well, Jerry, you'd be in a bloomin' bad way if recalling to life came into fashion"; or Sidney Carton's words to Lucy: "Think now and then that there is a man who would give his life to keep a life you love beside you"; or the story Darnay relates of the prisoner at the Old Bailey who carved the letters DIG on the wall of his cell—after which telling, Dr. Manette becomes very ill. All these details are of paramount importance in the unravelling of the plot, and students must learn to put these pieces together to determine, if they can, the outcome of the story.

A natural outlet for all this development of the imagination should be dramatization, another technique for getting the author's full meaning. Practically anything can be dramatized. Allow the pupils to write their own scripts, choose their own casts, set their own stages, and carry on rehearsals without teacher aid. They will do remarkably well without guidance, though they do need enthusiasm and appreciation on the part of the teacher. *A Tale of Two Cities*, *Arrowsmith*, *Up From Slavery*—all lend themselves either to pantomime or to dramatization. Any play the class happens to be studying can be done effectively and simply. And poems, with the exception of the very subjective type, can be done in Choral Reading, a fascinating and valuable method of

teaching appreciation of poetry to children.

But play upon imagination does not do for all types of reading. The emotional background must be set for thorough appreciation of the more difficult essays or poems. It is wise to place upon the board a quotation that in some way contains the idea of the selection to be studied. For instance:

"Of all sad words of tongue
or pen

The saddest are these: What
might have been."

—Whittier

makes a splendid opening for a study of Lamb's *Dream Children*, an essay which is so exquisitely beautiful that it is wholly lost upon a group of modern boys and girls. They cannot feel the throb of pain that should rise in every breast because they do not know the real story behind the essay. A discussion of the quotation before tackling *Dream Children* gives the class the proper mind set for the study.

For Ruskin's *The Medieval and the Modern Workman* a good entering wedge is a quotation from Stuart Chase's *Dogma of Business First*.

"Sure," said an ex-Ford employee, "if I went on tightening up nut 999 any longer, I'd have become nut 999 myself."

That remark is vital to the life of any lesson dealing with the tragedy caused the human being by mechanized routine.

It is sometimes a good plan, too, to allow the student to reconstruct out of his own experience and consciousness the material and mood of the poem or story. In teaching *Ode to a Nightingale* by Keats, let the class begin with an informal discussion of their own experiences. Have they ever felt dejected and melancholy, regarded the world as a place of suffering and misery, and wanted to get away from it all? Everyone at some time probably has, but few have had such justification for this feeling as Keats. His brother had, a little while before, died of tuberculosis, and he knew he had the dread disease himself. The girl he loved had married someone else. His first volume of published poetry had been savagely attacked by the unsympathetic Tory reviewers of the day. Money that might have prolonged his brother's and his own life was tied up in legal technicalities. Small wonder that much of Keats' poetry has a melancholy strain running through it; great wonder that this melancholy strain is wistful rather than bitter. In this poem, what agency does Keats use to effect his temporary escape from life? How does the poem remind one of the soliloquies of Hamlet?

With this motivation as a prelude to the study of the lyric, the pupils will attack the problem of interpretation with more ease and more desire.

Shelley's *Ode to the West Wind*

—always relished by the adolescent—once he understands it. An introductory note is helpful here, too.

If you have ever had a really brilliant idea that you have wanted to share with all the world, and then found that no one would listen to you nor encourage you, you will have some notion of how this young poet felt when he looked at a world sadly in need of reform (or so he thought) and he could do nothing about it. He pleads with the wind, the powerful majestic wind to carry his words forth and make them resound through all the world.

Shelley chose the West Wind because to him it was the symbol not only of destruction, but of birth, for the wind's blast carried the seeds to the four corners of the world to grow again. So, too, Shelley wanted his ideas to be disseminated.

Suppose *The Barrel Organ* by Alfred Noyes is the lesson for the day. Discuss the moving picture *Winterset* for a few moments. Through the informal talk, bring out the fact that seldom today does one hear a hurdy-gurdy, and never does he see an organ grinder with a monkey. In the picture, though we were given a fine idea of how much joy came into the lives of all those who listened to the strains of the barrel organ. Picture the group that gathered round it—men and women, boys and girls—all with sorrows and troubles on their minds. Yet, when the organ

played, feet tapped the rhythm, faces gladdened, and trouble was forgotten for the time being. In the poem, Noyes tries to picture for us the charm of music, and the tremendous power it possesses of reaching all types of humanity.

Profiting by Noyes' example, let us not omit the value of music when techniques are being mentioned, for it is a most important device for getting meanings. How anyone could teach the lyrics or the negro spirituals without music, is incredible. Classes *must* sing the lyrics. It will be noted that there is an aching void in their musical background for such a lesson, but so much is to be gained by it even though the process at first is painful, that the result is certainly worth the effort. If the school is fortunate enough to have a victrola, part of the problem is solved. Have the class listen first to the record, humming with it if they wish, and then let them sing with the record. After that, they will be willing to sing without the victrola. Such lyrics as *Drink To Me Only With Thine Eyes* by Jonson, or *Afton Water, My Heart's in the Highlands, Auld Lang Syne*, by Burns; *Sweet and Low* by Tennyson; *I Know a Bank, Who Is Sylvia, Hark, Hark, the Lark* by Shakespeare are much more effectively taught and appreciated when the pupils have sung them.

The negro spirituals must be sung or they might as well be left undone. How could one appreci-

ate "It's me, it's me, it's me, O Lord" if one merely reads the words!

Carry the idea of music on to use as another device. Set the tempo of a poem like *Lycidas*, or *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso* by using musical terms. Would the students place these poems in major or minor keys? Where would they use a crescendo? Where should the tone be diminished? These aids will help them to read with more expression. Try this idea with *Ozymandias*. It works like a charm.

A more formal method of getting the author's full meaning, one which is highly valuable, but which pupils dislike because it is difficult, is that of the formal précis. It should never be given when the aim of the lesson is appreciation. Précis writing is an art in itself, and pupils can be made to see its value when it is taught skilfully. Too often pupils miss the important ideas of a paragraph because they have not been given a definite method of procedure in the writing of a good précis. Give them the five essential steps necessary, and they will discover that the bugaboo has vanished. First, read through for a general idea—write a title for the paragraph. Then reread for specific ideas, jotting them down briefly. Third, check for two things: 1. All important ideas have been included. 2. All details have been omitted. Fourth, rearrange and combine ideas, and

write the précis. Fifth, check again to see that the précis contains all the ideas; that it is the proper length; that it is free from technical errors. If they learn to do all five steps religiously, précis writing will no longer be feared nor despised.

Sometimes a grammatical construction or a knowledge of punctuation is helpful for interpretation. The last line of Milton's *Sonnet on his Blindness*: "They also serve who only stand and wait," should be explained grammatically. Shakespeare's *Under the Greenwood Tree* must have punctuation explained. Show that it is not a question, although most everyone reads it as though it were.

It hardly seems necessary to suggest that teacher enrichment is a vital technique. Through extensive reading, or travel, or theater attendance, the instructor should be able to supplement a great deal of the work and give the students the background they need.

How can a student understand the line in Emerson's *Forbearance*,

"At rich men's tables eaten bread and pulse" when he does not know what *pulse* is?

How can he appreciate Pepys' diary when he says: "But my wife standing there with her two or three patches on and well dressed, I did think much handsomer than she (the princess)" when they have never seen the beauty marks the court ladies used to wear nor

associated them with patches?

How will they know what Stevenson meant by "The Land of Counterpane" when counterpanes are no longer so-called?

How will they ever appreciate Steele's *The Club* or Macaulay's *Coffee Houses* unless they have some knowledge of old London?

Or, in *Giants in the Earth* how can they sympathize with Beret's terror at the fact that in the new world, there was "nothing to hide behind" when they have no conception of Norway's steadfast mountains and her extensive forests, the homeland she left?

The teacher, using experiences wisely, can make much of the old literature come alive for the class.

And last, but not least, as a final device for thorough appreciation, the teacher must learn to read to the class. A genuine love of the great masterpieces is the first essential for good oral rendition. A conscious desire to convey the message to the audience, the ability to select the proper intonation, volume, emphasis, and tempo are also necessary. But they are not all. There is a skill required, too. What and how much to skip, where to explain, and when to add comment will come only with constant practice.

The student must not be merely

entertained when the teacher is reading to the class. He must be taught to create in his imagination the scenes and characters as he hears about them. His emotions should be aroused as he catches the mood of the author. He must, at times, be so intent that he will completely lose his identity as he lives the parts of the characters. Thus does he develop the powers of imagination and concentration.

The techniques for getting the author's full meaning then, are: 1. The curtain rises; 2. Creating a series of pictures or tableaux, both orally and graphically; 3. Between the lines; 4. Dramatization and Choral Reading; 5. Setting the emotional background through proper motivation; 6. Reconstructing from the pupils' own experiences the material and mood of the story or poem; 7. Use of music; 8. Formal précis and grammatical constructions; 9. Teacher enrichment; 10. Reading to the class.

If the variety of methods such as these is used, perhaps some of the less talented students will be stimulated to read some more of their own accord. If only one student is reached, the result is well worth the effort.

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MUSIC AND THE FORGOTTEN PUPIL IN THE HIGH SCHOOL*

In viewing the question of the "Forgotten Pupil in the High School," I can come to one conclusion, namely, that the Forgotten Pupil in the High School is the superior child. That may seem very strange, especially in this country where a child may rise from log cabin to the presidency. But democracy has been accused of regimenting its people into one level of mediocrity. That accusation has been made from time to time, and with a great deal of truth.

The reasons for this situation are economic and historic, but the principal reason can be given generally, that, because of the youth of our country, we are still in our growing pains. Our great passion for organization and mass production has reached the schools and has made rubber stamps of our students.

But our democracy is undergoing a change and, beginning with the very present, we are beginning to take notice of the superior child in the schools. This sudden turn of events in the secondary schools of our country comes from a definite recognition on the part of the people that in order to have the better things of life we must have better leaders who are in turn better equipped to point the way. In other words, there is a greater de-

mand for education for service. The depression and the aftermath of a World War have caused our people to consider very carefully the question "Whither are we going?" Above all we are determined to avoid the pitfalls of the mistakes of our European neighbors, and we are determined to get the better things of life here and now. So, as we look about us, we see organization for the superior child.

I represent a school which has been recently organized for the talented child in music and art, the High School of Music and Art here in New York City. This school is one of many experiments in this new venture to give the superior child that room for expansion which is rightfully his. Some still say that the High School of Music and Art is for the talented child, not necessarily the superior child. I will explain briefly what I mean when I speak of the High School of Music and Art as an example of provision for the superior child:

In the past, the musician has been considered an almost mysterious person. He dressed shabbily, was removed from the practical

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things of life, and was generally a "Bohemian." As for intelligence, one picked others for intellectual conversation—not musicians. But this was in the past, and truly so, for history shows that musicians in the past have been servants in the castles of the wealthy, and servants are not supposed to be too intelligent. Music was bought and paid for and has always been fostered by the wealthy classes. But since the days of the public concert, and, more recently, since the industrial revolution, and the invention of mechanical musical devices, music is fast taking an entirely new place, its rightful place, that of social importance.

In the reorganization of the curriculum, much thought has been given to the question "What shall be studied?" Subjects are now being dropped from the curriculum which have been entrenched for generations, for centuries, and, curiously, those very subjects which were considered fads and frills are now considered to be of utmost value in the education of a modern citizen. We seem to be going back to the days of Greek antiquity when three subjects were taught—Physical Education, Music, and "General Knowledge." Today the enforced leisure created by the efficiency of the machine has given rise to highly concentrated methods of teaching, new subjects, and new values.

So, for the talented child in music, an entirely new curriculum

must be laid out. With the advent of the phonograph, pianola, radio, talkies, the entire point of view in music has changed. I should not really say "changed," but I should say has been "amplified." For the first time in twenty-five years, such a profound change has come over the entire music education scene that, in spite of the depression, we are witnessing an elaboration of all the principles of music education as laid down by such pioneers as Earhart, Baldwin, Dann, McConathy, and Gehrken. The principles of the conservatory are being seriously challenged. Those musicians with conservatory training only are today handicapped. The prima-donna system has died out so completely that people have not yet recovered from the shock.

Does it mean that music is in less demand? On the contrary, music is in much greater demand now than ever before, and the demand is not so much for pyrotechnics and for coloratura perfection, but rather the emphasis is laid upon the spirit in which music is performed, upon amateur organizations and upon participation and creation of music as well. From this entire situation, we can formulate several general principles. First, we must have more music for more people. Second, we must teach music as an avocation for all and on a professional basis for those who may wish to continue. To supply the need for leaders in music, which is part of the de-

mand for more music in general, we must have a new type of musician. The musician of the present, and the immediate future, will have to be a person of broad general culture whose background in this field is one of integrated experience and study. Secondly, he should be a person who has a broad general background in music. This background must be varied and complete and must be tied up integrally with the general academic background. Finally, he must gravitate towards that branch for which he is best suited and must exploit it in specialization.

I will explain how the High School of Music and Art takes care of this new type of music education. First, our course of study goes back to fundamentals—and nothing is more fundamental than music expressed by means of the voice. Therefore *solfege*, part singing, choral ensemble, and chorus are our keystone. I hasten to add that an equally important factor in modern music education is rhythm, and, more definitely, rhythm as expressed through the body. Here again we go back to fundamental methods of music-making. Our entering students, therefore, are immediately engaged upon a thorough course in sight singing first. That part of the music education has been well taken care of. For the other, the rhythmic, the Dalcroze—we are experimenting.

To come back to the *solfege*, we consider this to be the only way of truly developing the ear, the only way really to establish the basis for future progress in musical development, such as the comprehension of intervals, of harmonies, of form, and so forth. At first we teach the movable *do*. Melodies are sung with *solfege* syllables, with letter names, with figures, with "tonic" minor, i.e., beginning the minor scale with *do* instead of *la*, in all the clefs, and finally with fixed *do*. This *solfege* work is intimately bound up with elementary composition, with melodic dictation, rhythmic dictation, and harmonic dictation. In other words, our theory course is not theory as such but rather it is the entire subject of music itself. We teach music altogether, all the branches in one room. If we could, we would teach even the instrumental branch in the same room, but it is physically inconvenient.

However, there is more articulation between all the branches of the music department and an instrumental teacher does a great deal of theory teaching in his own class also. The *solfege* makes for sensitivity to intonation. It also affords a direct lead into the study of a secondary instrument. For pianists, the secondary instrument is the study of some orchestral instrument and, vice versa, for orchestral players the secondary instrument is the piano.

This second important feature of our school supplies a great factor in the making of an up-to-date musician, namely, of social participation in performance. The day of salon music, introvert music, and "escape" music—sitting at the piano and using music as a means of escape from the burdens of life—is past. Pianos are no longer objects of furniture in overstuffed parlors, and the pianist of today can no longer be musically satisfied merely to express himself on his one instrument. Furthermore, the piano is a mechanical instrument, twice removed from the fundamental source of music making.

To enlarge the horizon of the pianist, therefore, a secondary instrument which can be played in a symphony orchestra is given to him. Very soon, new vistas open up for the pianist and before long he is able to play symphonies, chamber music, and so forth. He is able to engage in vital musical experiences which, as a pianist, were closed to him. All this while, he has been learning his instrument in small groups with other girls and boys of his own age level. "Practice" has become a thing of the past. The entire procedure is now pleasurable and completely engrossing. For the first time, the pianist learns to play an instrument which must be constantly guarded as to intonation. He becomes conscious of tone quality, and of being in tune, or out of

tune. Often have I heard young pianists remark about their secondary instrument, such as the 'cello that, when they play it, "it tickles".

For the orchestral player, the piano is of great importance. Up to this point, he has been reading music melodically, from left to right, but now he begins to understand, through keyboard training, that music sounds up and down also. For this purpose we have a room equipped with twelve miniature pianos, and a progressive course in piano playing is given.

Those students who apply in voice are given vocal training from the appreciative point of view. The controversy about the changing voice is summarily decided upon in our school by the care of voice *throughout* the entire period of vocal change. We feel that it is more important to control the voice during the changing period than not to supervise it at all. In small voice classes, a graded course of study is undertaken which acquaints the students with the entire field of vocal literature. Voice students enroll in the choral ensemble, and again group work with its attendant values of cooperation is stressed. Solo work is done in a very normal and quiet manner and all students have opportunity for stage performances, with group self criticism.

All students study composition, and there is a veritable overflow-

ing of programs of original composition in all forms. When the time comes in the senior year, a course in orchestration will be given for all students, at which time every student will have an opportunity to become acquainted with every instrument. By bringing the instruments into the classroom, each student will learn a new instrument each week. His knowledge will thus become practical as well as theoretical.

All this work entails three periods of the school day, four other periods being taken with academic subjects. These academic subjects are of college entrance calibre and are reduced in number to the minimum to enable the three music periods to fit in.

Children are recommended to the school from all over the city, and of the hundreds of applicants one hundred and twenty-five are chosen each term. Thus, with two terms or semesters to the school year, we admit two hundred and fifty per year. By means of as objective an examination as possible, based upon innate abilities rather than technical accomplishment, and with careful scrutiny of the candidate's intellectual equipment and recommendations, the new type of musician is found ready for development.

The school is ready to meet him with the latest equipment by way of orchestra rehearsal rooms, special practice rooms, a modern auditorium with an organ, theory class

rooms, vocal class rooms with small stages, and so forth. All instruments are owned by the school and are loaned to the children as freely as books, pencils, and paper. The question of running expenses and per capita costs is at present being worked out, and I am not at all uneasy on this score. On the contrary, I have full confidence that we will be proved a relatively inexpensive school. From my past experience, I see that the music department makes much less demand upon the financial resources of an institution than do the athletics, shop, and commercial departments.

The question now arises: "How can the High School of Music and Art assist music education in the general high school?" It can do so in several ways. In the first place, acting upon the assumption that the superior child should be given superior conditions to develop himself, a model can be set up for music departments in the general high schools. New ideas can be readily experimented with, elaborated upon, or discarded. New standards can be set, and, to make the circle complete, graduates will be better equipped to go back into the school system and improve and spread music education. The argument is a fallacious one which maintains that the superior education of the superior child is aristocratic or autocratic. On the contrary, it is inherently democratic. Witness the millions of

dollars which have been spent upon backward children. Shall not the superior child have equal opportunity? As an ordinary business proposition of investment and return, a proportionate investment on the superior child will bring much greater returns to the community. The establishment of a school for the superior child need in no way detract from the equipment, standards and harmony within the general high school. Rather, it should serve as a stimulus for the general high school. Within the two and one-half years of the establishment of the High School of Music and Art in New York City, we have been visited by music educators from all parts of the country and from all over the world. Already plans are being made in Cleveland, Chicago and Pittsburgh for a similar school.

In conclusion let me state that the interest of the High School of Music and Art, and my interests and those of its faculty, and of its children, are for music education *everywhere*. That means that I, as the Head of the Music Department of the school and as an individual, am interested in the development of music in *all* high schools and most especially in those

high schools where music has been the last subject on the curriculum. There should be only one difference between the music department of the High School of Music and Art and the music department of any other high school, and that is in the selection of its students. The High School of Music and Art is established expressly for the specially gifted students in music or art and admissions are made upon that basis. But the task of the music department of the general high school is to bring music to *every* boy and girl to the extent that he or she desires. All high schools should be completely equipped with enough instruments for the maintenance of one or more symphony orchestras, bands, ensembles, enough rooms, blackboards, pianos, victrolas, radios; and music and supplies should be on hand to meet all demands. In short, the student should get all the music he wants. When that time comes we shall have a sound investment which will bring returns to the community and our people, for a community that is beautiful to live in is a better community to live in.

ALEXANDER RICHTER.
High School of Music and Art.

CAN IMAGINATION BE TAUGHT?

CONJECTURES ABOUT A CLASS IN CREATIVE WRITING

When I was a boy, the writing of compositions was taught by the lock-step method. A subject was is-

sued by proclamation, say TRAVEL—there was none of this cod-
dling nonsense of preparation and

choice. Oh, no, we wrote it down at once, with the quick, simultaneous scratchings of forty pens, on the middle of the top line—TRAVEL. Then it followed, pat as drum beats, that the advantages of travel were A, B, and C. Or it might be that we were commanded to spill our young hearts in praise of FRIENDSHIP; and sure enough, it would again turn out, rather depressingly, that the blessings of friendship were those old reliables—A, B, and C; with reinforcements by D, E, and F, if the procession proved to be a long one.

Since those simple days, I have never, in my gyrations through a mad world, encountered this orderly march of events. A and B appear only by chance, and C must have retired on a pension; at least, he doesn't seem to work any more. Like as not, I begin by stumbling over X, and then go smashing blindly into Q; while all the rest of the alphabet whirls indistinguishably by. Yet I seem never to have lost step with the old order; and in any conversation, I find myself plodding along with A and B, while sprightlier minds are dancing to other measures.

As a teacher of a class in creative writing, my first difficulty is to rouse my own mind out of this pedestrian gait. It does not matter whether it was caused by early training, or whether I fell into it through a certain inflexibility of disposition. It is an absolutely es-

sential preliminary to release, first myself, and then my pupils, from the compulsions of the Obvious, from that mental goosestepping which we defend as logical.

I would not seriously maintain that the teacher of such a class should be more than a little mad. It will be sufficient that he realize there is in all invention a touch of madness, and that in all madness there is much invention. Shakespeare assured us long ago that the poet and the lunatic "are of imagination all compact." He causes us to yawn at Polonius' so sound and sensible advice to Laertes, and to find meaning and beauty in the mad fancies of Lear and Ophelia. In just such wild imaginings we see the very process of creation. The world not only was, but still is being made of chaos.

For consider how narrow is the circle of the things that are fit, known, and ordered; and then look beyond to the vaster areas of the obscure, the out-of-mental-bounds, the dimly surmised, the incongruous, behind which the gods of truth hide their laughter. All inventions, whether of literature, of science or of philosophy must venture into this dark and troubled sea. Invention is putting together those things which the ignorance or willfulness of man has kept asunder. While Columbus's egg was not the first which could have been made to stand on its end, it is a niggardly and envious spirit which maintains that

true wit is merely dressing to better advantage "what oft was thought but ne'er so well expressed." This is the too-rational Eighteenth Century confessing its unimaginative limitations.

The satisfaction with which we have greeted this classic denial of creation may have arisen from the fact that our minds dearly love to slide in grooves. We like to find that all things about us are but modern instances of old saws. Life becomes repetition, finds satisfaction in the tom-tom rhythm of jazz, seems to seek to rejoin the insensate vibration of undifferentiated atoms. Bergson has traced for us this descending movement of life through geometry and logic and custom, down to the dead repetitions of "le brute matiere." The same truth has been somewhat differently stated in Mephistopheles' accounting for himself as "der stets verneint" — Carlyle's "Everlasting No."

Conversely, life and growth lie in the transcendence of mechanical satisfactions. Do you remember with what fervor our infant voices sang, "The Farmer in the Dell"; with what untiring gusto we circled again and again through that processional from the farmer himself to the ultimate cheese? This satisfying round was not in those simple days a unique experience. The litany of the multiplication table was chanted each morning by forty piping and happily unreflective young-

sters; and spelling and geography had their own tunes. Why picture the old education in gloomy colors? It was not inspiring, but neither was it unhappy. Children at all times delight to impose a rhythm on any series of sounds. Listen to them yelling, "'Fraid cat, 'fraid cat!" in an endless gleeful, maddening chorus!

I have dwelt at length upon how instinctively and almost intricably we are bound to the proximate and to the repetitious, because I would like you to realize that developing creative imagination is not merely filling a void. It is fighting a current, it is trying to make the mind soar against its own gravity.

Yet that counter-movement began very early, too. Even in childhood we had not only that doggerel scheme of CAT—RAT—CHEESE, but a more surprising story in which we were given a very different sort of progression—CAT — BOOTS — QUEEN! The first scheme is logical; the second, poetic.

All I have to say in this article is that training the imagination—teaching creative writing—is helping pupils to get away from the lock-step of one to dance with the other.

Once we have grasped this principle firmly, we have but to consider the means and as these are infinite in number, and any one will do, this should not be hard.

In one of the notebooks of Leonardo da Vinci is a passage in which he advises the artist looking for inspiration to study time- and weather-stained plaster walls: "There you will descry landscapes decked with hills, rivers, rocks, and trees; plains, great valleys with peaks in changing patterns; there, too, you may discover battles, figures in vigorous action, strange physiognomies, costumery, and an infinite number of details which you can work into complete and pleasing forms." Have we not all found glowing embers or clouds shaping themselves to the patterns of our reverie?

The attitudes of our minds at such times are instructive. They are characterized, by relaxation—we let go, we are fancy free, not geometrically bound. We find ourselves in a state of effortless sustained attention. Our move is in any direction, and with the most surprising leaps.

Everyone should set aside daily a definite period for this kind of mental play. The scientist and the practical worker will find in it rest; for it is not only a change of activity, it is a throwing off of dull compulsions, a limbering, caper-cutting, mental high jinks. The philosopher or the teacher will find it a part for new departures.

The classroom situation is not ideal for such exercise, because contemplation is, or should be, a lonely job. Fortunately, New York

children seem to be able to live obliviously in the midst of the hubbub, so that there are a number of ways, even under these conditions, that the imaginative faculties can be set to play.

First, there are exercises which call for a combination of observation and the free association of ideas. In *Adventures in Thought and Expression*, Mr. Blohm has shown how a piece of paper can be played with and made to reveal the riches of our minds. With such a "starter" (any object will do), my pupils this term wrote a variety of themes. (This variety of results arising out of a common experience is, I believe, one of the most significant evidences of true imaginative activity.) Here are some of the subjects started by playing with paper:

Stories:

Halley—Tragedy in the Life of a colored laundress
Dreams—Atenement Romance
Wings—A fairy tale
Happy Ending—A satire
Three's a Crowd—Smart dialogue
Greta—A study of vanity
Return of the convict

Essays:

Friday Afternoon
When I Study
Biography and Autobiography—
a Comparison
The Union—as Viewed by an Employer

The Bath—Vain Protest of the Small Boy

Personal Experiences:

In the Night Bus
The Choir Rehearsal
Death in the Family
My first Operation
A Wedding

Poems:

Snow
Footsteps

Another exercise was suggested by the method employed by Stanislavsky in the training of actors for the Moscow Art Theater. He frequently required them, when they were studying their parts, to conceive them in terms of some inanimate or some animate but remote entity—a run-out phonograph record with the needle monotonously scratching, a frightened rabbit, a leopard sleeping under the noon-day sun, a battered ash-can.

Conversely, familiar objects can suggest distinct and complete personalities. A pupil begins by telling of a faded, tattered necktie that is always showing up in a crowded drawer whenever one is looking for something else. This description shifts abruptly to the tired and depressed father of a large and quarrelsome family. He would like to assert himself, to take hold and remind them that he is still there; but everyone is busy with his or her own affairs and pays no more attention to him than to

be briefly annoyed by his inconvenient presence. The story tells how much brighter the pattern of his life was long ago, and of how he had dreamed of much more beautiful family life. He feels certain that they all would be charmed by the loveliness of his conception, if only they would give him a chance to reveal its beauty. But they never do. The writer does not press the analogy too far, and she makes skillful use of the suggestion.

Exercises in pantomime give play to the imagination, precisely because there are no words to bind a definite meaning to the action. A pupil is asked to enter the room and close the door in a way that corresponds to some humanly significant situation, either factual or fictitious, in his own mind. Each member of the class then writes a few vivid sentences giving his own interpretation of the action and his own context. Other productive pantomimes are:—opening and reading a letter; receiving a visitor; a chance encounter; lighting a lamp; picking a flower.

The writing of a historical story was not a successful experiment; perhaps because the reconstructive imagination does not seem to lead into the creative. I asked the pupils to acquaint themselves with the historical background of a novel set in the days of old, and then to evolve a new story dealing with some different phase of

this history and with other person-ages.

Keeping a notebook is one of the most fruitful sources of creative activity, provided it does not become a mere chronicle. The pupils must be taught first, that it is not the fact, but the writer's sense of the fact that matters. Such a journal would be a progressive evaluation of life and the world without, and of the self within. Furthermore, the material should be played with, departed from and returned to in revery, until some new and significant aspect of it is revealed. At the end of the term, the pupil makes a selection of some of this material that seems to show a consistency of interest and develops it into a long theme.

In connection with the foregoing project, I was particularly interested as to the kind of material that appealed to or started the pupil's imaginative processes. I therefore asked the class to list two or three objects, situations, thoughts, activities, people, and so forth, which most invariably and most intensely aroused their minds to creative activity. Here are some of the answers:

The greenness and the refreshing odor of grass
Reading poetry in peace and quiet
Jewish customs and traditions
Sunlight in gardens
Departure of a crowded ocean liner
Dancing to phonograph records
People's faces when they speak

Despondency
Blind people
Being alone
Chaplin's waltzes
Seeing a boat's prow cut the water
My family
Shelley's poetry
Sitting in strange places, such as fire-escapes
Comparing mansions with slums
Certain words, like *inevitably*
Clouds—shapes formed
Absolute silence
Flowing water

I could have made the list a much longer one. It has no value as a guide to the sources of invention; but it does show, I believe, the folly of assigning set subjects for composition work to even moderately bright pupils.

The foregoing exercises are neither novel nor numerous in view of the infinite opportunities to induce creative writing. All of them are effective only if sufficient scope is given to mental play, or free association. Indeed, it is well to encourage thinking of, the most incongruous sequences, to be followed by attempts to work out amazing relationships between the most widely removed items. As a matter of fact, it is probably impossible for anyone to set down two words that are not connected in some way in his experience.

Another indispensable condition is that there must be a gathering of material, adequate for the purpose in hand. One reason why my history project was the poorest of

the lot was that the pupils had not read enough. Upon other occasions some of them did not observe closely enough. It is a good thing to demand that they have at hand a great deal more material than they expect to use; for this makes effective selection possible.

I have said nothing of careful organization and revision, of the mastery of words, a sense of design, a perception of overtones, of all the craft that is needed to convey the writer's message to the reader. There are reasons why I have not attempted this: these matters would require a much longer article than this; and, furthermore, they have been already dealt with more deftly than I could explain them by Mr. Sexton in his article on "Teaching Form in Creative Writing."

But please note that no amount of skill in these matters will atone for a lack of invention. The great Italian critic Benedetto Croce tells us that art is conception and not execution.

Finally, to see whether my pupils had acquired the readiness and the flexibility of mind that I had been striving to develop, I set the following problem for their term examination: "Look around the examination room, select a present object, person or circumstance, reflect on it, and write." Here are some of the responses:

1. A piece of chalk—A story of how a piece of chalk

was used to outwit a teacher.

2. The window—A story of Fate and a Chinese school-boy in the New World.
3. A brimmed hat—Its uses in an unfeeling, indifferent world, a satire.
4. Exit—Tragedy of an egoist.
5. Desk inscriptions—A satirical essay.
6. Desk inscriptions—On the hazardous ways of romance.
7. A flowered dress—Story of a poor peddler.
8. A thumb tack—Exhortation on independence and perseverance.
9. The blackboard—On this world as a vale of tears.
10. The ceiling lamps—A camping incident.
11. The faces of the pupils as they write—Psychological surmise.
12. The window bars—Last hours of the condemned prisoner.
13. A shoe—Suggested personality.
14. Floors—Crowds of people.
15. Floors—Life in the big city.
16. A notice on the bulletin board—Story of the tree.
17. The door—People's exits and entrances.
18. A disagreeable girl—An ideal school.
19. The blackboard—Story of a patient slave.
20. A locker door ajar—How

interesting people are when you get to know them.

21. The teacher—A characterization.
22. A stool—Essay on reliability.
23. A rivet—Story of a train wreck.
24. The test paper—Snappy dialogue about dates and parties.
25. Classmate—A characterization.
26. Classmate—Gambling with eternity—a sermon.
27. Rows of seats—The procession of life, a sermon.

28. The blackboard—A poor parish priest.

29. A pair of shoes—Satirical sketch of a vain and pampered girl.

30. The teacher's desk—Recollection of my grandfather.

31. The doors—A parable.

As for the original question—"Can the imagination be taught?"—I do not know. All I am sure of is that this term it has been exercised.

CHARLES W. RAUBICHECK.

Evander Childs High School.

WHY AND HOW WE TACKLED SIX-MAN FOOTBALL

For a good many years we have heard general educators as well as health educators and former coaches criticize the game of American football as being too hazardous a sport for the growing adolescent of high school age.¹ Some of the critics suggested that the sport be eliminated from the high school curriculum. Others recommended a modified game. Which course shall we pursue?

Before proceeding any further, I wish to point out that the criticisms rendered have improved coaching and training methods, equipment used, and actual playing in our schools today. However, I

wish to take exception to the observations of those gentlemen who advocate the elimination of the game from the high schools.

There is no more popular school game in the United States than football. It is my contention that no matter how much adverse criticism is directed toward the game, it will not stop the American boy from playing it. Records of recent years show that the game is being played by continually increasing numbers. The manufacture and sale of football equipment has increased. It is interesting to note also that football togs for "tots" and youngsters of the pre-team age have been in great demand in the past two years. Unfortunately, with

¹ J. C. Saltman, "Health Supervision in College and High School Football," High Points, March 1936.

this increase in popularity, there has come an appalling increase in accidents, particularly in sandlot games.

To quote from a recent study: "Detailed information is available on the football fatalities for the five years, 1931 to 1935. During this period 146 deaths were directly caused by the game of football in sandlots, athletic clubs, high schools, and colleges.¹

In the face of these facts, shall we adopt a defeatist attitude and eliminate football from our high school curriculum; or shall we face the problem squarely and from an educational point of view?

In 1936, J. C. Saltman, Chairman of Health Education at Franklin K. Lane High School, made some vital recommendations to the health and physical education profession.² He urged that health educators get together and modify the game of football so that it would retain the thrills and eliminate the hazardous elements in order to make the game safer for high school use. During the same period, in the State of Nebraska a group of physical education teachers headed by Stephen Epler was developing a new game of Six-Man-Football which satisfied all the recommendations made by Mr. Saltman.

The new game of Six-Man Football³ has all the features of eleven-

man football. It eliminates, however, many of the hazards of the traditional game, substituting an open, freer style of play, removing the emphasis on close line formation and mass contact. The originator of the game and his associates based most of the rules of Six-Man Football on a careful study of injury statistics.

Six-Man Football has grown in popularity throughout the Midwest. A survey made by Stephen Epler, a survey which includes 45 states, shows that in the season of 1935-36, only 156 schools engaged in some form of Six-Man Football, and in the following season, 1936-37, the figure rose to 532 schools. Such a game must have a "kick" in it to have grown so rapidly.

Here in the East, and especially in the Metropolitan district, the game was practically unheard of until in 1937 two small high schools on Long Island, Babylon and Baldwin, came in for much publicity when they formed Six-Man teams and played before a large crowd.

In a survey made at Alexander Hamilton High School, a school of 3,000 students, it was discovered that while the varsity and junior varsity football squad number 60 men or so, more than one-half of the students play some form of football in their leisure time. Approximately one-third of these play

the regular eleven-man tackling game on the sandlots. We know how inadequately equipped and poorly trained "sandlotters" are for this rough sport. Is there any wonder then, the football injuries to "sandlotters" are so high?¹ Health Educators in the Metropolitan area must meet this dangerous sandlot problem with a football game which is safer, and which at the same time, will challenge the interest of school boys.

Believing that Six-Man Football is a safer and saner, and that it provides just as much fun, the writer decided to promote the game as part of the program of leisure time recreational games. It is his hope in teaching Six-Man Football that it will spread to the sandlot, where, in our city, it is needed most.

HOW WE WENT ABOUT TEACHING IT

Challenging posters announcing that the football coach was going to lecture on a new game of Six-

¹ Stephen Epler, op. cit., page 46.

Man Football stimulated considerable curiosity and interest so that about 350 students attended the first meeting, which was held in our auditorium after school hours. Interest in the lecture was keen. A second lecture was necessary to complete the introduction of the new game. At the second meeting mimeographed copies of the rules and diagrams of the dimensions of the field were distributed to the students. In these introductory lectures, particular stress was laid on the safety of the new game. Each student was urged to go out and teach the game in his own neighborhood. To promote further the game our Health Education Department announced a Six-Man Football intramural tournament with two hand touch in place of tackling.

HOW WE ORGANIZED OUR TOURNAMENT

Entries were open to all students who passed our school Medical Examination. Each entrant had to fill out the accompanying blank.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON HIGH SCHOOL HEALTH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT PARENT'S PERMISSION SLIP

My son, Room.....
has my permission to participate in an intra-mural Six-Man Touch Football tournament after school.

.....1938 Parent's Signature
Age:
Height in Inches:
Weight:
Classification Number:

¹ Lloyd, Deaver, Eastwood, *Safety in Athletics*, W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia 1936. Pages 43-44.

² J. C. Saltman, op. cit., page 20.

³ Stephen Epler, *Six-Man Football Handbook*. University Publishing Co. 1937.

We wanted a parent's signature because we felt that the home should know that the games were going to be played after school on a nearby field under teachers' supervision. We wanted the age, height, weight figures for classification purposes. The players had to be divided into teams of fairly equal physical abilities for competition.

We used the McCloy Classification Index (20 A 6 H Wt.)¹ Out of 187 entries received we made two divisions—Division A for heavier and older boys, Division B for lighter and younger lads. The classification range for Division A was 865 to 963, and for Division B it was 773 to 864.

Many boys requested to be together because of friendship. We felt it would be best to grant these requests providing they didn't interfere with their divisional classification.

We didn't want lighter and smaller boys competing against taller and heavier boys.

Before the tournament began, the writer felt there was a need for at least two more lectures, one on offensive formations and tactics, and the other on the defensive strategy of Six-Man Football. These were held and the interest and enthusiasm of the tournament increased.

¹ Charles H. McCloy, *The Measurement of Athletic Power*. A. S. Barnes and Co., N. Y. 1932.

We set aside two weeks for team organization and practice. These practice sessions were held on the regular field with a teacher present to help the boys to carry out the rules and regulations of the game properly. We also gave practical demonstrations on the field during these practice periods.

After these practice sessions, we called a meeting of the team captains. At this meeting, we set up to elimination tournaments and came to a clearer understanding of the rules and regulations on the game and our modifications for touchackle.

We played on a field 40 x 80 yards, using six-minute quarters. There were 2 minute time-outs between 1st and 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters, and 10 minutes between halves. Three one-minute time-outs were allowed for each team during the entire game. The only equipment required consisted of sneakers.

We used a unique idea for goal posts, one set of movable goal posts which comprised two poles ten feet high, and eighteen feet apart. The cross-bar was made of heavy rope. The goal posts were held by two boys on the goal line whenever a team was in need of them.

All the games were refereed by our varsity football players, who, incidentally, were not allowed to play in the intra-mural tournament. Our officials kept a record of the

first downs made by each team. In case of a tie score, the team amassing the greatest number of first downs was declared the winner. Out of fourteen games played in both tournaments, only two ended this way.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

1. We promoted the spread of a safer football game for leisure time activity.

2. We made students safety-conscious in athletics.

3. We provided the "little fellow" with an opportunity to play in a football game. Our tournament in Six-Man Football proved to us that the shorter lad could excel in this sport as well as the larger boy.

4. The game developed player initiative, leadership, and creative power in devising a system of plays. Each team got together and planned its own formations and cycle of plays, instead of depending upon the coach.

5. The game developed a fine cooperative team spirit because it required a reliance on "man for man" blocking and wide open play.

6. The tournament developed a better understanding and appreciation of Six-Man Football as well as of eleven-man football because of the close similarity in the games. We found that boys liked the game, because, as they said, "We all got a chance to carry the ball."

7. Except for some minor abrasions, which did not prevent any boy from continuing in the game, we had no injuries.

8. We also found that the rule which grants four points for a goal encouraged the boys to try for it. This, we believe, will reduce the injuries, even when the regular Six-Man Football, which permits tackling, is employed.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

We are not advocating the elimination of the traditional game of football. We feel that the eleven-man game as played in our high schools under modern care and supervision by a health education teacher, who is usually the coach, and the team's physician, who has complete jurisdiction as to whether or not a boy is fit to play, is as safe as any major sport. We believe, though, the adoption of some of the rules of Six-Man Football would reduce even further the hazards connected with the eleven-man game. Our problem, however, is to teach a game so that it will do the greatest good to the greatest number of players.

Six-Man Football is a safer game for "sandlotters" and for smaller boys in high school who cannot make the varsity squad. By teaching Six-Man Football to our high school students, health educators will be adopting a *positive method* of meeting the problem of

leisure-time athletics. Therefore, we recommend that all high schools that have not yet introduced Six-Man Football begin teaching the game immediately. It is only by concerted effort that we shall be

able to make recreational football safer than, yet equally as thrilling, as the older form of game.

BARNEY COHEN.

Alexander Hamilton High School.

REPORT OF THE ARISTA HELP CLASS COMMITTEE

I. PURPOSES

On March 22nd the Arista of the DeWitt Clinton High School organized an afternoon help class system for the following purposes:

1. To help students of DeWitt Clinton High School who have fallen behind in their school work.
2. To help members of the DeWitt Clinton High School Arista who intend to major in the Teaching of Modern and Classical Languages, Mathematics, and Sciences get practice in conducting classes in their most proficient subjects.

II. ORGANIZATION

Foreign Languages, Mathematics,

*The project described in the following report originated among the boys who are members of Arista, was organized by them, carried forward and completed by them without teacher help or supervision. It was a 100% student activity. It may be of interest to others.

The report was written by George Artola, one of the pupils who acted as supervisor.

IRWIN S. GUERNSEY,
Faculty Adviser of Arista,
DeWitt Clinton High School.

and Sciences are considered the most difficult subjects offered to students of High Schools. The Chairman of the Arista Help Class Committee therefore listed the following subjects to be taught by Arista Tutors:

1. French
2. Spanish
3. German
4. Italian
5. Latin
6. Mathematics
7. Chemistry
8. Biology
9. Physics

In order to obtain Arista boys who have ability in the above subjects to serve on the Help Class Committee, each member of Arista had to list his favorite subject on the Personal Information Card distributed at the first Arista meeting of the term. The Chairman of the Help Class Committee selected the boys who were to serve on the Help Class Committee. Boys who were to serve on the Committee were personally interviewed. This

method enabled the Tutors to select the term of their subject they preferred to teach. Requests for two different terms of one subject were not infrequent. Three Arista Tutors are teaching at the present time two different terms of a subject on two different days of the week.

The work involving the management of the Help Classes is divided in the following manner:

1. The Chairman of the Modern and Classical Language Section, George Artola, takes care of all Language Tutors.
2. The Chairman of the Natural and Physical Science Section, Adrian Duncan, takes care of all Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry and Physics Tutors.

Each tutor was responsible to his Chairman and the Chairmen were responsible to the Dean of Arista. The Chairman of the Modern and Classical Language Section took charge of all clerical work. The Chairman of the Natural and Physical Science Section took charge of the Supervision of Instruction of all tutors.

The problem of selecting rooms in which the Afternoon Help Classes could meet was solved by finding out the rooms which were not occupied by Adult Education classes, clubs and teachers' "office hours".

Mimeographed "Application Slips" were given to teachers personally by members of Arista. (See model). The teachers distributed these slips to boys in their recitation classes who were failing or to all boys who desired credit for attending Help Classes.

The maximum number of pupils that could be sent by a teacher was listed on typewritten slips of paper together with the days and the rooms of the Help Classes. These slips were prepared, with the kind assistance of Miss Lewis, by consulting the following material in the Program Room.

1. The Teachers' Program Sheets
2. The Registration Sheets
3. The Section Officers' List
4. The Room Sheets

By regulating the amount of pupils that a teacher may send to the help classes, the attendance at

M.....
.....of Sec..... Room.....
of has attended the Arista
Help Classes in He has had.....
lessons of one hour each.
Signed IRWIN S. GUERNSEY

each Help Class is adjusted so that overcrowding is eliminated and control of the class by the Arista Tutor is facilitated, thereby promoting orderliness. The average Help Class has between six and ten pupils although some classes have as many as nineteen pupils. To make schedules of the Help Classes readily available to all students and teachers, mimeographed schedules listing the days on which the Help Classes meet and the rooms in which they meet were posted in every room in the building.

III. PREPARATION OF THE TUTORS

At the second Arista meeting of the term, the names of the members of the Arista Help Class Committee were announced. Members of the Committee were required to submit to the Chairman of the Modern and Classical Language Section an outline of the work to be accomplished in each help class. Boys were urged to consult the teacher of their subjects in order to find out the difficult points to stress and the amount of work to cover before the Uniform Examinations. Index (or Library) cards were distributed to all tutors who desired to use them for exercises at the blackboard. Instructions on methods of conducting a lesson were given orally at the Arista meetings and typewritten copies of the instructions were posted on the Arista Bulletin Board. Tutors were instructed not to lecture to

the students in their help classes. A great deal of emphasis was placed on allowing the students to master the fundamentals of the subject by themselves by taking part in oral work and written work at the blackboard.

IV. SUPERVISION

Each member of the Help Class Committee makes a record of the attendance of his class which is later checked with the supervisor's records. He also records the number of lessons that he gives his students by writing the date of the lesson and signing his name along side of the date after the lesson is ended on the Attendance Slips which his students always carry with them. At the last help class of the term, the tutor collects all the attendance slips. He counts the number of his signatures on the slip and records that number on the Application Slip which is always in his possession. The teachers receive these Application Slips and give extra credit to the students whose application slips they have according to the number of times they have attended help classes. The Chairman of the Modern and Classical Language Section has charge of delivering all Application Slips to the teachers whose students have attended Arista Afternoon Help Classes.

The Chairman of the Natural and Physical Science Section rates each Arista tutor once a week besides recording the attendance of

the help class. The tutors are rated for the following purposes:

1. To increase interest in the work
2. To determine the best workers on the Committee for service credit on Arista.
3. To provide a method whereby tutors are checked and supervised to insure the success of the system

The ratings of the members of the Committee are based on the following points:

1. orderliness and attention of class
2. planning of the lesson

3. method of presenting the lesson
4. questioning
5. accuracy of the tutor

The ideal tutor plans his lessons and presents the high points in the subject in such a way that the class understands all the points reviewed. The class pays strict attention and is orderly because of the tutor's ability to conduct and control the class. Proper questioning on the part of the tutor often aids in keeping up interest in the topic that is being taught. A tutor who is accurate, does not waste time, plans and presents his lessons properly and controls his class well, always receives an excellent mark for his work.

HIGH POINTS

TOLERANCE, THE KEYSTONE OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY*

In characteristic school teacher fashion I shall begin by giving a few definitions. First, what do we mean by American democracy? The American democratic ideal is based on the principle that all men are equally entitled to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. These fundamental characteristics of American democracy make it possible for any American citizen, on the same terms as any of his

fellow citizens, to hope and work for that position in life to which his qualifications may entitle him. Racial or religious prejudices are, therefore, contrary to the essence of true American democracy. My second definition is that of tolerance. Let us start with the dictionary definition of tolerance: "forbearance in judging the acts or opinions of others . . . especially religious views differ from one's own." Tolerance does not mean merely enduring, putting up with, or being indifferent about our

*An address broadcast over Radio Station WBNX under the auspices of America's Good Will Union on April 6, 1938.

neighbor. It does not mean condescension, looking down or talking down. Tolerance is hospitality of opinion, a willingness to allow others the liberty of thought we want for ourselves. Tolerance is the realization that another may have an opinion quite different from our own and still be just as sincere as we. Tolerance in our American democracy is respect for different kinds of good in others, whether they trace their Americanism back three centuries to the Mayflower or three years to the steerage.

That tolerance is the keystone of American democracy is borne out by repeated assertions of our great men throughout the 162 years of our existence. In 1790 George Washington himself said in a letter addressed to the first Jewish Congregation and Synagogue in Newport, R. I.: "The citizens of the United States of America have the right to applaud themselves for having given to mankind examples of an enlarged and liberal policy, worthy of imitation. All possess alike liberty of conscience and immunities of citizenship. It is now no more that tolerance is spoken of as if it were by the indulgence of one class of people that another enjoys the exercise of his inherent natural rights."

And Woodrow Wilson, 125 years later, declared in an address on Americanism: "America was created to unite mankind by those passions which lift and not by the

passions which separate and debase. We came to America, either ourselves or in the persons of our ancestors, to better the ideals of men, to make them see finer things than they had seen before, to get rid of things that divide, and to make sure of the things that unite. It was but an historical accident no doubt that this great country was called the 'United States,' and yet I am very thankful that it has the word 'united' in its title; and the man who seeks to divide man from man, group from group, interest from interest, in the United States is striking at its very heart."

President Theodore Roosevelt, the man who has been justly called the "typical American," whose broad tolerance in respect of creeds was one of his most prominent characteristics, said: "Americanism is a question of spirit, conviction, and purpose, not of creed or birth-place. There are two or three things that Americanism means. In the first place it means that we shall give to our fellow-man, to our fellow-citizen, the same wide latitude as to his individual beliefs that we demand for ourselves; that so long as a man does his work as a man should, we shall not inquire, we shall not hold for or against him in civic life his method of paying homage to his maker. An American never discriminates against a man because he embraced the religion that came to him with his mother's milk."

America, from the days of our

founding fathers to the present, dedicated to liberty and the brotherhood of man, has believed that each race has something of peculiar value which it can contribute to the attainment of those high ideals for which the nation is striving. America has believed that in differentiation, not in uniformity, lies the path of progress. It has acted on this belief; it has developed human happiness and it has thus progressed to be the most desirable country in the world.

If we are to continue to serve as an inspiring example to the world of the harmonious functioning of democracy, we must all realize that there are true Americans who did not happen to be born in our section of the country, who do not attend our place of religious worship, who are not of our racial stock, or who are not proficient in our language. If we are to continue on this continent as a free Republic and as an enlightened civilization capable of reflecting the true greatness and glory of mankind, it will be necessary to continue regarding these differences as accidental and unessential. We shall have to look beyond the outward manifestations of race and creed. Divine Providence has not bestowed upon any race in our midst a monopoly of patriotism and character.

Since education in America is dedicated to the transmission in their purest form of the principles of democracy to the next genera-

tion, it is especially fitting that we in our public schools stress tolerance as the keystone of American democracy by fostering among all the children of all our people respect for each other's sincere convictions, mutual confidence, and good will. One of our main educational objectives, especially in a cosmopolitan city like New York, should be the development of knowledges and appreciations of the cultural contributions of the various peoples merged in the American melting pot. This objective should be stressed throughout our educational system, but especially in the high school period, because that is the time when our boys and girls are most idealistically inclined and are responsive to appeals to their sense of fair play. In our high school study of the social sciences, English, foreign languages, and the fine arts, we should aim to develop tolerance and respect for minority cultures by emphasizing their contributions to civilization in general and to our own spiritual and material happiness in particular.

The high school period is the period in the life of the individual when ideals are most readily formed. Let us, therefore, consciously foster the ideal of traditional Americanism by cultivating a spirit of mutual understanding, friendship, and good will, by the exercise of the virtues of patience and forbearance and by an appreciation of the beauty and goodness

of all races and all creeds. It matters not whether we be Catholic, Jew, or Protestant; we are all needed by our glorious Republic for the continuation of its great democratic traditions. We all are the children of the same Father, we all love the same country, we all belong to the same humanity. Just as the glory of the rainbow consists in the harmonious blending of all its colors, so must the glory of these United States emanate from the union, material and spiritual, of all our many peoples, races, and creeds.

HYMEN ALPERN.

Evander Childs High School.

MENTAL HYGIENIC ASPECTS OF ADOLESCENT BEHAVIOR*

A clear understanding and a sympathetic appreciation of problems peculiar to the various levels of growth into adolescence and maturity are essential for those who are entrusted with a youngster's training and guidance. Merely keeping a child physically healthy will not guarantee that he will be adjusted to his home, school, and play environment. There must be taken into consideration, also, the child's behavior problems, intellectual development, personality growth, and social adaptability.

Before the child reaches adolescence, he passes through two crises: birth and his initial entrance

*Proceedings of the Mental Hygiene Committee meeting, High School Teachers Association, November 13, 1937.

into school at the age of six. At birth the child is brought into an apparently cruel world where he is fed at the discretion of his parent, protected rather uncertainly against climatic conditions, and attacked at all times by pathogenic organisms. With the painstaking and affectionate care of parents most children reach school age with few, if any, serious handicaps. At the age of six the child must adapt himself to the school situation. This is not difficult, except in the case of a few who may sulk or cry because of homesickness and too much attachment to their mothers.

From the age of six to about twelve or thirteen, children are referred to a psychologist mainly for their failure to do school work satisfactorily.¹ The psychologist will very often discover that the child has a reading or arithmetic disability which can be removed, or he may discover that the child is mentally deficient, in which case special schooling is recommended. On the other hand, he may find that the child is retarded because of physical, intellectual, emotional, or moral disturbance.

At about the age of thirteen or fourteen the third crisis in a child's life takes place, the adolescent phase. He is now neither a child nor an adult. Parents are confused at the youngster's behavior. In school the child is very often a problem to the teacher. To himself

¹ Annual Report of the Brooklyn Child Guidance Clinic, Brooklyn, N. Y., 1937.

the child is in a state of distress, trying to understand the changes within himself and the failure of adults to appreciate his difficulties.

What is adolescence? It is not a sudden flowering of the child into manhood; it is not a mystical or spiritual upheaval within the child which separates him completely from his infancy. Biologically the child is prepared for adolescence from the very day he is born. Changes go on in his body from day to day which finally terminate in manhood. But at about twelve years of age, although the time varies in certain races and individuals, the physical transformations within the body are exceedingly rapid. We all know how the child suddenly outgrows his shoes and clothing, how almost overnight he grows taller and heavier. It is this accelerated growth that brings with it problems that require guidance both for the child and for the parent. Some parents fail to realize that their youngster's gawkiness and peculiar actions are not intentional but are merely incidental in the transition from childhood to maturity.

The chief problems of the adolescent, however, are not concerned with his physical growth, although these are not to be minimized; they are those which pertain to the emotional state that arises from his bodily changes. Parents are almost bored with the statement that it is their duty to inform children about the importance and signifi-

cance of the maturing of bodily functions. Yet, all too frequently parents come to a child guidance clinic seeking advice on how to deal with a child exhibiting anti-social or a disturbed emotional behavior. Parents need not have had these difficulties if they had given a little time and consideration to their children's problems.

Perhaps the chief problem that the psychologist, in the role of mental hygienist, encounters in guiding the adolescent is concerned with the proper way by which the child separates himself from the rigid and strong ties of the family group. This process is known as "psychological weaning."² The mother of an only child sometimes stubbornly refuses to admit or to see that her baby is now an adult. When she persists in calling her child by his pet name, in selecting his clothes for the day, and in supervising and controlling his every action and decision, then behavior problems may follow which may mar the youngster's personality growth for years and, perhaps, for life. When parents cannot appreciate the fact that their daughter is now a young lady and is capable of some independent judgment, family scenes that are not conducive to her proper social growth and development may occur.

In the later years of adolescence, about 18 or 19, the youth should be ready to face the world on his

² Holligworth, Leta S., *The Psychology of the Adolescent*, pp. 36-38.

own merits and resources. This does not mean that he severs all connections with his home or that he strives to be entirely independent financially. On the contrary, he may live with his parents, but he is permitted, to a large degree, to think independently and to make important decisions for himself. Above all the emotional and over-affectionate attachment of parents should be less overt as the child grows older.

The happy and well-adjusted adolescent is the one who can put aside childish behavior and think of himself as a mature individual, one who has great love for his parents but is not entirely dependent upon them for emotional comfort, for constant guidance, and physical protection, one who understands the importance of his ripening manhood, its possibilities and also its limitations, and finally, one who has a healthy and normal outlook on life, realizing that one must absorb the shocks of adversity as well as delight in the joys of success.

ABRAHAM B. BERMAN.
Boys High School.

REMEDIAL PRONUNCIATION

We hear a great deal these days about remedial reading. It is found that many pupils who enter the high school are deficient in read-

*Copy of address made at the Italian Panel of the Fourth Annual Foreign Language Conference held at New York University on Saturday, November 20, 1937.

ing. They decipher; they hesitate; their eye spans are small; their fixations along a line are many and therefore the process of getting meaning from a printed page is a slow and laborious one. For these pupils it has been thought expedient to administer remedial reading. It seems that the results have been most gratifying. I propose to discuss with you remedial pronunciation. I consider this matter of fundamental importance in our special field, namely, the teaching of Italian. I start from the premise that 95% of the students studying Italian in our high schools are of Italian origin. We do have others, it is true, and I hope that in time we may be able to interest larger numbers. At present, however, the Italo-American student is our problem. He comes to us with a deficient pronunciation, and it is our business to provide a remedy for it.

First of all we must have a clear idea of what our aim is. Our syllabus tells us that our chief aim should be to develop in the student the ability to read to the point of enjoyment books, magazines, papers within the limits of the students' interests and capacities. You are all acquainted with the findings and recommendations of the Canadian-American report. In the short time that the student devotes to the study of a foreign language it is impossible for him to acquire sufficient mastery of the spoken and written language to make it worth while. It is felt that his

efforts if directed mainly upon reading bring him a more substantial reward.

Now let us consider the Italian student. He comes to us already equipped to a certain degree, with the receptive phases of the language; he understands spoken and written Italian fairly well. It is a fact that in the Regents examination the answers on the Aural Comprehension are almost always perfect in the majority of cases. What our students need most of all is practice in the reproductive phases of languages: namely, speaking and writing. Their former linguistic experience has given them bad habits of speech, habits which they carry over into their English speech, causing them to say "Itlee" and "liddle" for "Italy" and "little." This is the challenge that our work with the Italian student holds for us. We must help him rid himself of these defects.

Are we justified in stressing this aim? I think we are. First of all, the various phases of language learning are dependent on one another, and it is impossible to develop proficiency in reading without stressing pronunciation. Hagboldt in his excellent book on *Language Learning* tells us that the proper comprehension of sound and the ability to utter sound fluently with a fair degree of correctness is the basis of all language learning regardless of the aim. When we read silently, we pro-

nounce unconsciously. Experiments in psychological laboratories have recorded the fine motions of the organs of speech in silent reading. Some physicians forbid patients who have severe throat ailments to read in bed. Consequently in stressing pronunciation and oral work we are laying a firm foundation for better reading.

Now then, what should our approach be? I think we ought to take the student into our confidence. Acquaint him with our aim. Spend a few lessons on this matter of dialects. A pupil should not be made to feel inferior because he speaks a dialect at home. We can explain to him that if his parents had remained in Italy they would have gone to school there and would have learned the correct Italian. It isn't true that only uneducated people speak the dialect. As a matter of fact, as you all know, it is considered rather smart for Venetians, for instance, to lapse into the dialect. Many writers write in the dialect. It is interesting for the pupil to know that some Sicilian dialects have French words, Neapolitan dialects Spanish words, Piemontese French words, and so forth. At the same time, we must point out to the student that the pronunciation of many words in the dialect he knows is a careless, slovenly, lazy pronunciation, which he can correct if he takes the trouble to do so.

We must find ways of inspiring the pupil with the will to improve.

During the past few weeks I have tried a little scheme in a third term class. I asked how many students went shopping in Italian stores for their mothers. Several raised their hands. I asked whether they spoke Italian to the dealer. Some said they spoke the dialect because the dealer would not understand them if they attempted correct Italian. I told them I didn't think so. "When I go into a shop," I said, "I speak Italian to the dealer, and not only does he understand me, but he tries to speak better himself." As a matter of fact, one boy said he went into a shop one day where he had always heard the dealer speak dialect, and found him speaking in quite a different way to a customer who spoke correct Italian. I told the students that I wanted them to go home that day and ask their mothers to send them to the store. They were to speak to the dealer in Italian. I taught them the polite form "*Mi dia una libbra di spaghetti*," and so forth, and I asked them to report the dealer's answer. Many interesting reports came in. One boy had asked "*Mi dia una dozzina di uova*," which he pronounced very nicely. The dealer asked him if his mother had asked him to say that. . . . I told them I wanted them to beg their mothers to send them to the store. The mothers in the community will be quite grateful to us for developing such an attitude of helpfulness in the pupils. I sometimes ask a pupil to come

up to the front of the room and repeat his sentence distinctly. At the same time, I ask the rest of the class to notice what a change in his outward demeanor the correct pronunciation makes. They do notice it. We can do a great deal to improve a student's personality by making him cognizant of his shortcomings in this matter of speech.

It is indeed an arduous task. How are we going to do it? These pupils must form new habits of speech and we must give them exercises that will bring this about. I have consulted with the chairman of our speech department, who is a very prominent man in his field and who obtains excellent results. He feels that we must begin with fundamental exercises. The student who says "Gallo" for "Carlo" should have exercises having an initial *k* sound. B's for p's; d's for t's must be treated in the same way—initial exercises with strong utterance on the p and t. Every teacher should make use of practical phonetics. Students should have drill not only on separate sounds but on word groups: *tutto il libro*. Intensive practice in the fluent expression of a sentence: *I contadini sono venuti al mercato*. There should be a considerable amount of imitative work. Of course, as you all know, it is not sufficient to correct the students once. There must be many repetitions of the new way of pronouncing; systematic reviews of pronunciation. Tell them

that they are being rated for improvement in pronunciation. I think that we should cut down our course of study in the first term to the very minimum, devoting three quarters of the time to pronunciation and oral work. We will be giving these students a firm foundation on which to build.

I feel that this improvement in pronunciation is profitable to the student in a good many ways. The student improves his English; he gets rid of some objectionable elements of his personality; he acquires an understanding of his home surroundings; he gets a new set of values. Surely this seems worthwhile.

EMMA MENNA.

Evander Childs High School.

SPANISH AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

What an infinite variety of possibilities and opportunities we have missed in not having correlated our foreign language instruction with the Social Studies. Teachers of Spanish and teachers of Social Studies in our secondary schools should meet and plan a program of correlated work. Without sacrificing the orderly presentation of the specialized materials of these subjects, we can and should teach them in the light of their social implications. A foreign language as a medium of transmitting human experience and knowledge is in essence cultural and social.

The tragic events of the past

few years with an increasing and broadening shadow of hatreds and bigotries make it more than imperative that we, as teachers, make every effort to spread a more just attitude towards social groups who speak another language. Surely, teachers of Spanish, a tongue that is spoken on three continents and also in American possessions, can do much to contribute to this ideal.

A program of correlation can make use of two instruments of learning, Spanish newspapers, and Spanish books and magazines.

There are two steps which should be taken in order to insure the best results for this program. The first is an administrative one. If possible, all students in a social studies class should be either in the same term of Spanish or taking the same year of Spanish. If the social studies teacher also knows Spanish, we have the best possible beginning for the program. In fact, we may term these ideal conditions, for we realize that they can be attained in exceptional cases only. If but half of the members of the class are studying Spanish, we shall still have satisfactory conditions. Every effort should be made to assign a social studies teacher who speaks Spanish, as this will facilitate the planning of work with the Spanish department. If a teacher is not available in the social studies department, the Spanish department should assign a teacher to cooperate with the social studies teacher.

vice and at the same time an educational procedure. In addition to the Spanish newspaper, English newspapers are to be used. The teacher should have a complete knowledge of propaganda and be able to teach the class the ways of recognizing it. The Department of Superintendents, in its 1937 year book, pointed out that "Knowledge of public opinion and propaganda is a matter of first importance to teachers and pupils; it is a central fact in the educational crisis." It is suggested that the teacher read the following: *Education Against Propaganda*, in the Seventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies; *Pressure Groups and Propaganda*, in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science for May 1935; *Mobilizing for Chaos*, by Riegel (Yale University Press); *Propaganda, Its Psychology and Technique*, by Doob (Henry Holt and Company); and *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*, by Pierce (Scribner's).

When these two steps have been taken, we are ready for the first part of the program—the use of Spanish newspapers in the Social Studies class. It is assumed that the teacher makes use of the daily newspaper in his teaching. The stimulation of the class or of the students who study Spanish may be effected in various ways. It is most important to make these students want to read the Spanish

newspapers to see whether they may be used in the Social Studies class. The teacher may bring a copy of *La Prensa* or *La Voz* to class and ask whether any student can translate a given article which pertains to the work under consideration.

At the teacher's option, the following method may be used to prepare the apperceptive background of the pupil. Problems raised by foreign language newspapers in our country may be discussed. This plan will lead to specific questions, such as: What do people who read a particular language actually read in their foreign language paper? Are the news reports the same as those published in the English newspaper? Are the editorials the same? Are there syndicated articles of a different nature from those that appear in the English newspaper? What views do the editors express? Are there in the foreign language newspaper certain news items which would be relatively unimportant in the English newspaper? In what ways can the foreign language newspaper help us in our work in the Social Studies?

The Social Studies teacher and the Spanish teacher must study each article to decide whether it is within the capacity of the student. Needless to say, from the teaching viewpoint, not all articles appear at the right time. It is well, therefore, to have the students clip the articles, index them, and keep them in a loose-leaf notebook, ready to

be used when the particular subject is reached for class study. In the teaching of history, economics, economic geography, civics, and social problems this method of correlating the Spanish language and the social studies will be of inestimable value. Correlation should begin with the two Spanish newspapers which are printed in the United States. Later, the teacher may decide to use Spanish newspapers printed abroad to illustrate certain points or serve as the basis for further readings.

This brings us to the second part of the program, the use of Spanish books and magazines. New York City has good facilities for obtaining Spanish books. Before deciding upon a book for a student to read, the Spanish teacher, the social studies teacher, and the student should hold a brief conference and discuss the correlating of the book with the social studies work. In economic geography, the study of Spanish speaking countries should be made directly from Spanish source material. The Spanish edition of the *Bulletin of the Pan American Union* will be of service in this field. Later, Spanish magazines from abroad may be used. Over a period of time, a Spanish social studies library should be built. There should also be included textbooks in Spanish covering subject matter that is being studied by students in Spanish-speaking countries.

Much remains to be done within

this field. I have merely attempted to point out the possibilities in correlation and the fact that it can be accomplished. It is a possibility in the intricate field of education.

In carrying out the program we should keep in mind the following goals to be reached as results of the correlation of Spanish and the social studies:

- I—A better understanding of South America, Central America, Mexico, Spain, and our own country in its relationship with these countries.
- II—A better understanding of current events in Spanish-speaking countries.
- III—An understanding of the problems in our Spanish-speaking possessions.
- IV—A realization that these fields of knowledge are not departmentalized, but closely related.
- V—Character growth as a realization of the power of the student to take techniques, skills, and learning of one field and apply them to another field.
- VI—Greater interest in Spanish and in the social studies.
- VII—A realization that we are not alone, but part of the universe, and that other peoples have problems which may be similar to our own.

HAROLD GLUCK.

Walton High School.

While the writer believes that for serious cases of reading disability and retardation the most successful approach is through individual diagnostic and corrective measures, a considerable improvement in reading may be effected merely through an increased reading program. Poor readers are generally unwilling ones, though it would not be easy to distinguish here between cause and result. The problem of the English teacher is to induce students to read, not because reading is a task to be done, but because it is a means by which one can obtain necessary information, keep in touch with world events, pass time pleasantly, live vicariously. The following exercises are all designed to make reading a means to these ends without having the student become "reading-conscious."

STUDENT'S WORK SHEET

1. Written composition on following topics drawn from personal experience.
 - a. A narrow escape.
 - b. A conflict or struggle.
 - c. An example of unselfishness and sacrifice.
 - d. An example of unfairness and injustice.
 - e. A person with a strong (weak) character.
 - f. A perfect (imperfect) person

(Students furnish duplicate illustrations from their own experience of examples others give.)

2. Talk (personal experience).
 - a. A good story.
 - b. Wishes that come true.
 - c. A good (or bad way) that people get what they want.
 - d. People who do (or who do not) get what they deserve.
 - e. Some of the dangers surrounding a person living today.
3. An informal letter to an imaginary good friend on one of the following:
 - a. How the guilty person was found (show the discovery taking place, step by step).
 - b. A very clever plan, trick or play.
 - c. Outwitting one's opponent or enemy.
 - d. It couldn't happen but it did.
 - e. Overcoming difficulties.
 - f. Nobody knows what he has until he loses it.
4. Talk.
 - a. Human Nature is strange: You can never tell what people will do.
 - b. People are never satisfied.
 - c. What people will do for money.
 - d. Fate unfinished: Life hanging by a thread.
 - e. People prefer death to disgrace.

- f. Suspense: To be or not to be!

5. Find in any newspaper you read examples of six of the topics from the preceding four groups (making a total of 24 topics to choose from). Be prepared to make a substitute headline for the news item as well as to re-tell the latter in your own words.

Student reads item. Class determines which of the 24 previous topics fits it best. Here the exercise is one in determining logical significance. Members of the class sum up the thought, explain difficult words.

Second part of exercise: What large truth does this item illustrate about human nature or about life in general, i. e., what is its moral lesson? Here the exercise consists in determining psychological significance.

The same item in various newspapers is compared for accuracy, clearness, interest, etc. In this manner, an indirect evaluation of tabloid newspapers is made.

Students are asked to duplicate news items in their own experience.

6. Find a newspaper item to illustrate any one of the following:
 - a. What I'd like to do or be when I grow up.

- b. This reminds me of myself years ago.
- c. How to make
- d. People I'm glad I'm not.
- e. Places I'd rather not be in just now.
- f. People with whom I would like to change places.
- g. Places I'd like to be in now.
- h. Suffering I could not endure.

7. Find in newspapers an illustration of something very important to one of the following groups of people:
 - a. You personally.
 - b. People living in N. Y. C.
 - c. People living in N. Y. State.
 - d. People living in the U. S. A.
 - e. Every human being on earth.
 - f. To all creatures on the earth and other planets.
8. One student, preferably the one least interested in reading, but nevertheless articulate, will tell class his life story. Class will make notes of what he says, then each member will write up account in any ways he wishes: as story, poem, play, newspaper item, using nothing of original except bare facts. Instructor will also write up the student's account. Members of class may question student in order to make the account more complete

and intelligible.

Every account will continue life story ahead ten years.

Write-ups of increasing grades of verbal and imaginative complexity will be read by original student and by others who do not like to read.

Student whose life story is being used will select most accurate biography.

9. The plot of some famous story or play treated as in preceding, with original story read as grand climax or dramatized.
 10. Interesting personal letters received by members of class or by their friends or members of household, brought to class and read.
 11. Simple puzzles requiring reading given to members of class. Students make up their own puzzles. Cross-word puzzle done in class.
 12. Students bring to class three examples of particular types of jokes and humorous stories under the following heads:
 - a. Jokes which depend on hurting someone's feelings.
 - b. The underdog strikes back.
 - c. Unexpected ending (a new ending given a very familiar funny story; variant on familiar situation).
 - d. Jokes which play on words (pun).
 - e. Jokes which teach a lesson.
- f. Jokes with more than one point. (Double meaning in entire situation and not merely in one or two words.)
 - g. Impossible situations.
 - h. Cynicism (no faith in human nature, disgust with life and people).
 - i. Tables turned; joker finds joke turned on himself.
13. Each student is given a newspaper clipping not seen before and asked to match the incident it describes with a similar one from his own experience or to invent one on the spot.
 14. Foregoing assignment repeated with student's compositions, exchanged from assignment 1 and 3.
 15. Students bring to class three examples of particular types of advertisements which appeal to any of the following motives:
 - a. Fear (Scare-Ad).
 - b. Vanity or pride.
 - c. Desire for pleasure.
 - d. Curiosity.
 - e. Sentiment and romance.
 - f. Love of beauty.
 - g. Desire to be different from most other people (snobishness).
 - h. Imitation of the rich and of exclusive society.
 - i. Economy.
 - j. Making a little extra money.

- k. Get something for nothing.
- l. Learn a trade or profession.
- m. Desire for health.
- n. Social success.
16. Each student brings to class three favorite popular songs, where the main interest is in the words and not in the music. Each student is required to
 - A. Tell in one sentence the theme of the song.
 - B. Classify song according to type:
 1. Wanting to fall in love (love passes the singer by).
 2. One loves, other does not.
 3. Falling in love.
 4. Confession of love.
 5. Love's misunderstanding.
 6. Love's sacrifice.
 7. Love is over:
 - a. Singer was jilted, no reason.
 - b. Singer was jilted, someone else.
 - c. Singer stopped loving, no reason.
 - d. Singer stopped loving, someone else.
 8. Home and mother.
 9. Nonsense.
 10. Let's be happy and have a good time.
 11. Isn't nature beautiful.
 12. Life is strange, isn't it?

13. Those were the happy days (memories, looking backward).
14. Desire to travel and get away from it all.
15. Songs about nationalities and character types.
16. Unclassified.

- C. To find a duplication, if possible, in his own experience or in that of persons near him, of the experience presented in the song.
- D. Preceding done with books and motion pictures.
- E. C. done with poems of serious writers.
- F. Discussion of why popular songs are popular.

GEORGE LAWTON.

Evander Childs High School.

INTRODUCING A CLUB ORGANIZATION INTO A HYGIENE LESSON

The purpose of this discussion is to answer the question "How can a lesson in Hygiene be so organized as to make it more vital and democratic both to students and teacher?"

This challenging aim subdivided itself into the following objectives:

1. To provide students with the opportunity to take an active part in the class organization.
2. To create situations for pupil leadership and pupil initiative.

3. To tie up class lessons.
4. To establish an atmosphere where the students and teacher would become part of a group with the richer and more fruitful experience of the teacher guiding and stimulating the thinking of the students.

These objectives were to be made an integral part of each Hygiene lesson but were not to interfere with the daily or weekly lesson plan prescribed by the Syllabus.

Subsequently, a search for ideas was begun which would make the above objectives realizable. Methodology was not the problem at hand. What was needed was an easily administered organization. After a great deal of reflective thinking, and discussion of the problem with colleagues, the club organization idea was turned to for experimentation.

Setting The Stage:

The first thing to do, it was felt, was to prepare the class room proper. To be surrounded with constructive ideas regarding health is an aid to learning about health. With this thought plus the four large objectives acting as guides to clear thinking many ideas came to mind which ultimately led to the desired goal.

Bulletin Board:

It was decided to build a large bulletin board to extend the entire

width of one wall. This was done simply by removing the molding which secured the blackboard slate and inserting over the slate composition board cut to size. The replaced molding and a coat of shellac finished the process.

Health Question Box:

Next came the thought to build a "Health Question Box." A cigar box with a mail box slit at one end served the purpose. This was fastened within easy student reach on one side of the bulletin board. A poster with the words "Health Question Box" and an arrow pointing to it was tacked above the box.

Health Posters:

All around the class room were hung posters and charts relative to health. They were obtained from the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. and other sources.

Plants and Aquaria:

Plants and aquaria should be considered as very desirable additions.

Films and Projector:

As an aid to teaching, incidentally, a 16 mm. silent projector will prove of inestimable value. It is easy to operate and inexpensive to maintain. Free and appropriate films are made available by the Board of Education, Y. M. C. A., and insurance companies.

Class Organization:

The club chairman and secretary idea with slight adaptation was incorporated.

Duties of The Chairman:

The chairman was to be chosen by the student body of each class. His duties were to take over the class the first few minutes of the period—not more than seven minutes. He was then to select a secretary for the new lesson from a list of voluntary names previously obtained. Questions placed in the question box not applicable to the lesson under discussion were to be distributed by the chairman to small committee groups formed for that purpose. The secretary for the last lesson was then to read his minutes. After asking the students for additions or corrections, and the same being noted by the secretary reading the minutes, the class is turned over to the instructor.

Duties of The Secretary:

Volunteer secretaries were called for and their names listed and given to the chairman. The minutes were to be kept in one book provided for that purpose. The content of the lesson under discussion was to become part of the minutes. Names of students who made reports, asked questions or handed in interesting material for the bulletin board, were also to be included.

Committees:

Small groups were to be formed as special committees to make reports, either on assignments given to them by the instructor or on questions taken from the question box.

Comments:

It is taken for granted that pupils have an elementary background of accurate health knowledge. Such an assumption is disproved by actual facts. Health superstitions are still rampant. False advertisements are accepted as scientific truths. These facts have been disclosed time and time again. Pupils with problems important to them will turn to questionable sources for advice. Where else can they go? Speaking on larger aspects of health, the instructor will often miss those very things that students eagerly want to know.

To aid the student to obtain accurate information concerning problems that are vital to him, whether on personality, or health, the "Health Question Box" was constructed. Thus far the idea has proved its worthwhileness. Questions of general and personal nature have consistently been asked by the students. To encourage the asking of questions, no names are placed on the question paper—only the day and period to facilitate assortment. Questions can be placed in the box at any time, and are not limited to day or period.

At the end of each day, the questions are collected.

The instructor will usually find a few questions applicable to the new lesson plan and can use them for motivating purposes. The others are given to the class chairman to be distributed to the committee groups for future reports.

The bulletin board has been a constant source of pupil scrutiny. Those who arrive before the final bell absorb the contents and often base questions on what is found there. A great number of students have handed in for display on the bulletin board personal drawings on health topics. It is a source of great pleasure and satisfaction to individual pupils to have either their own personal material or gathered material with their names on them, or a typed report of excellent class minutes on the bulletin board for others to admire and emulate.

But It Works:

Once the pupils are seated and the attendance taken, the class is turned over to the chairman, who appoints the new secretary. He then calls for committee reports. Following this, assignments from the Question Box are given to other Committees. The secretary reads the minutes. The chairman then turns the class over to the

instructor. These class minutes act as an excellent basis for review.

If a film is to be presented as part of the lesson such organization provides the instructor with the necessary time to prepare the projector and other materials.

Effort and perseverance on the part of the teacher are necessary to make the above described organization successful. The teacher must believe implicitly in the idea himself before he can sell it to his students.

Health and Sports Club:

An offshoot of the above organization was the development of a club of twenty-five members called the Health and Sports Club. This club meets once a week after school hours where advanced health topics are discussed. The usual club organization prevails with the instructor acting as a member. Committees were elected by the club members to study ideas for a term program. The last Olympic films were presented at one of the meetings. Space does not permit to go into details, but it is sufficient to say that the club is really part of the big idea to make the Hygiene lesson more vital and democratic both to students and instructor.

ROBERT RUBIN.

Textile High School.

ART COMMEMORATES THE ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF THE CONSTITUTION

Dr. Rogalin, principal of New Utrecht High School, mentioned to the first assistants at their meeting that all departments should try to introduce, at some point in their courses, a note pertaining to, or echoing the celebration of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the framing of our Constitution.

The art department, a vital and dynamic organ, never permitting dust to descend upon its creative problems, took up the challenge. The chairman adhering firmly to the modern theory that art must not be academized or pigeon-holed, that each successive sheet of paper awaits a new, crisp, original approach handed the suggestion down to the members of her staff.

I set about creating a lesson and appropriate project embodying the constitutional motif for my Art in Dress classes, without disrupting the outline of the semester's work. Students were told to pretend that a constitutional ball was to be tendered by patriotic organizations throughout the nation. Several personal problems were suggested. The student selected the one which best suited her taste and aptitude. The lesson was prefixed by a brief talk on contemporary conditions. It was pointed out that their expressions should reveal that they are proud of being Americans, living in America, away from Euro-

pean strife and turmoil protected by the spirits of the men who framed the constitution.

Creative Problems:

1. A design for an all-over pattern using the name of a famous American statesman as a motif.

2. A costume design for a constitutional ball based on early American dress but altered in design and color to suit the temperament and personality of the individual student designer for whom it is intended.

3. A smart, modern Miss America costume employing the national colors of the United States in its execution.

4. A design for any dress accessory to be worn at a constitutional ball—hat, bag, shoes, parasol.

5. A costume for an American girl of foreign ancestry using as dominant colors the hues of the ancestral country, such as green for Ireland, red, white, and green for Italy, and injecting for points of contrast and interest our national colors and symbols.

6. An American Scene dress using for the textile the printed page of a newspaper including headlines and summaries of events occurring in Washington.

The students were not limited to the ordinary classroom materials. Various materials were combined in one costume to produce a contrast of textures. Students were stimulated to use their uncurtailed

imaginings limited only by proper application of art principles in dress to achieve interesting structural and decorative design.

Materials:

1. Absorbent cotton was used to produce whigs, cuffs, trimmings.
2. Bits of wool, curled and twisted, functioned adequately in simulating early American coiffures.
3. Some students actually worked with laces, silks, and characteristic materials of colonial dress.
4. Colored cellophanes, gold and silver papers were crumpled, wrinkled or pressed to represent various textures and textiles.
5. Postage stamps of different denominations, cut and shaped, were used for bows, trimmings, accessories and patchwork effects.

For reference materials history texts, photographs of colonial dress, and fashion books were employed.

Two to three lessons were required to complete the project. The intense interest displayed from the outset was augmented by the unreeling in the auditorium of a sound picture depicting the struggles of the Constitutional delegates at its incipience.

The result was an effective integration of history, the required art work and allegiance.

The creative problems covering a wide range of individual expression, excellent in design quality

and execution, reveal the keen interest displayed by the pupils, and the educational value of such projects.

LOUIS J. MILLER,
New Utrecht High School.

PEACE WEEK IN ERASMUS HALL

The menace of war today is so real that both the liberal and conservative have come to recognize the necessity of peace education if civilization is to survive. High schools in New York City in particular are teaching peace now more than ever before. In Erasmus Hall it has become an annual custom that the week marking the anniversary of our declaration of war, April sixth to twelfth, marks an intensification of our peace efforts. During the fall term, Armistice week likewise witnesses extensive peace activity.

In line with this policy, a faculty peace committee was selected by our principal, Dr. John F. McNeill, of seven members from various departments. The chairman was Miss Isabel Boyle, head of the History Department, and its other members were Miss Batchelor, Miss Burgard, Mr. Badain, Mr. Crowley, and the writer. A cooperating student committee of seven was selected by the president of the General Organization. Joint meetings of both groups were held at which the peace week program was planned. April sixth was made peace day and nearly every class had a special

peace program. To avoid overlapping, each department agreed in advance as to the phases of peace to be covered. The following will give an indication of the scope of the school's activities:

Art classes had as their purpose the making of posters for the week. These were prepared several weeks in advance and were placed on nearly every bulletin board in the school. Among their slogans were: "Peace on Earth", "Progress with Peace", "The Dead Cry Halt", "You Can't Win in War", "Use Engines of War as Engines of Peace." These posters served to focus much attention on the special significance of the week.

Economics classes stressed the cost and economic causes of war.

In English classes peace was portrayed in poetry, prose, drama, and the screen. Different subject matter was prepared according to the grade of work. Thus grades 1, 2, and 4 had discussions of the poems *In Flanders Fields* by McCrae, Sorley's sonnet *To Germany*, and Amy Lowell's *The Bombardment*. Grade 7 had an analysis of the essay by General Smedley Butler, *War is a Racket*. *The Unknown Soldier* by Dr. Raymond Fosdick was the subject in grades 6 and 8.

In French and German, discussions were held as to means of promoting amicable relations between the country whose language was studied and the United States.

Language as an instrument of international understanding and culture was likewise stressed.

In Spanish, peace among Pan-American nations was the topic of the day. It would seem logical that a discussion of the Spanish Civil War would be in order, but it was felt too controversial to handle.

There were delivered in speech classes excerpts on peace from famous orations and also debates on pre-arranged topics.

Science students learned of the destructive use of science in warfare as contrasted with its constructive use in peace time. The open-mindedness, truthfulness, tolerance, and internationalism of the true scientist was set up as a model.

Lessons in History were "to be done on a pre-arranged scholarly basis and were not to be allowed to deteriorate into a valueless airing of personal opinions by argumentative students," according to the History chairman's announcement to teachers. Various topics were suggested in advance. Among the most popular were: collective security versus isolation, disarmament, the reasons for the failure to maintain peace, the methods of bringing about peace, and how high school students can help in the prevention of war.

Many of the extra-curricular activities had peace programs. For example, the Senate, the school debating team, argued with Alexander

Hamilton High School before an audience of about a thousand on the subject, "Resolved, that the Ludlow Referendum Bill should be adopted by the United States." I might also mention that this was not the only example of cooperation with another school for peace week. Peace committees of Erasmus and Boys' High School held a joint meeting and exchanged ideas.

The Dutchman, the school newspaper, had a special issue on April eighth. Headlines of the leading article will give some indication of the contents of the paper—ERASMUS MAKES PEACE WEEK PLANS, WAR ASSAILED BY MANY DEPARTMENTS, CLASSES STRESS DIFFERENT PHASES OF PEACE. The paper included a symposium on the most debated topic of the day, "Cooperation or Isolation," with many students taking part. There were editorials on the futility of war. In addition to student interviews, a history teacher who had been an athletic director of the American army on the western front was questioned. He summarized his views with "What have I seen of war? I've seen enough to realize that war is horrible and I've seen enough to make me a bitter enemy of any aggressive war." There was an interesting column of excerpts from *The Erasmian*, the school's magazine, telling of the war-time activities of the school, which were a marked contrast to the surrounding columns dealing with peace

efforts of Erasmians twenty years later.

The climax of the week's peace program was the presentation of a skit from *Bury the Dead* for five successive days during the regular assembly period. Thus every student had the opportunity of seeing the peace play. The text was substantially that published for the Armistice Day issue of the *Scholastic* in 1937. Student members of the Peace Committee and of the dramatic society made up the cast. Miss Mary Weisberg of the Speech Department acted as coach.

We selected the play because of its stirring qualities and because it indicated life at home during the war as well as life in the trenches.

The following speech will give an indication of the temper of the scene:

"You hire yourself out to be killed and I get fifteen dollars a month," said poverty-stricken Martha to her husband. "I wait in line with the rain soaking through my shoes for a pound of rotten meat once a week. At night I go home and watch the roaches. Nobody to talk to, just sitting, watching the bugs, with one little light because the government's got to save electricity. You had to go off and leave me to that . . . It's about time you eighteen-fifty-a-week stood up for yourselves and your wives and your dirty, rickety, children."

The audience watched the play with extraordinary tenseness. In

the senior assembly, the applause at the close of the presentation was so thunderous that it can rightly be termed an ovation. It was a decided tribute to the efforts of the actors and a sign that the peace message had struck home.

SAUL ISRAEL.

Erasmus Hall High School.

MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE

For the student who has completed a large part of high school mathematics, there remain, nevertheless, certain concepts and techniques, not studied in the regular high school course, which are of considerable value to one inclined towards science or engineering. To this end, the following course was developed with a small group of students at Stuyvesant High School during the term of February 1938.

It was necessary at first to become acquainted with widely used mathematical terms. The following terms were used: variable, dependent and independent, function, explicit and implicit, variation, direct and indirect, and constants. This was done concretely and by use of many outstanding scientific formulas.

The first topic, empirical formulas, contained few skills that were new, but combined many into a valuable unit. It aimed to teach the formulation of experimental data. This gave the student an insight into the technique of the research scientist.

The student learned to write the approximate equation for data that assumed the forms of $y=mx+b$, $y=axb$, and $y=abx$. The following notions and techniques were studied for this purpose: straight line and curved line graphing, slope, intercept, arithmetic mean, semilogarithmic and logarithmic graphing. The data came from various textbooks and journals. The students developed, for example, a formula $p=2.24 \times 10^{-12}-5.67$ from original data.

This was followed by a study of vector forces in connection with the following physical ideas: the triangle law, parallelogram law, parallelopiped law, resolution of force, moment, and equilibrium. These topics served as an excellent integration of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Studies were made of many situations taken from the fields of elementary physics, statics, and mechanics. Ultimately, the students were able to analyze and compute tensions in chains and rods, magnitudes of force and direction of force in hinges of cranes and hoists, and so forth.

The method of vector analysis was continued in the domain of alternating currents. Sinusoidal wave forms were plotted vectorially. Amplitudes, phase angles, and cycles were studied and their trigonometric equations written. Currents, as well as electromotive forces of different amplitudes, cycles, and phase angles were

graphically combined. Many cases of power curves were drawn and their equations written. The notions of lag, lead, rotational factor, and other physical counterparts of the curves and their equations were continually discussed.

The application of complex numbers to electricity followed easily. The definition of an imaginary unit as a rotational factor, De Moivre's theorem, and the modern notations for $\cos A + i \sin A$ in the various quadrants resulted from the study with applications to electricity.

Throughout the above work, the notion of harmonic curve was developed until finally the reverse situation climaxed the study. This was the writing of a Fourier's series for an harmonic curve by a method of graphic analysis.

Attention was now shifted to the nomograms, a technique of ever increasing value and widespread use. The theory was limited to the cases of two and of three parallel axes. The students constructed nomograms for the quadratic equation, wherein roots were read to three significant figures, for the cubic for readings of two significant figures, for Ohm's Law, and for Kirchoff's Law. One of the boys developed originally a nomogram for the fourth degree equation.

The mathematical description of constrained motion by means of rectangular, polar and parametric equations was the next topic. Much

of the emphasis was placed on the latter as an inordinately powerful method. Equations were developed for all the conics, the various trochoids, certain evolutes, the conchoid of Nichomedes, cylindric surfaces, surfaces of revolution, the various quadrics, and other general loci. Two of the boys actually constructed many of these curves. These, as well as nomograms, and harmonic curves, all excellently done, were shown at the mathematics exhibit of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, New York City, June 1938.

Finally, the elements of the calculus were introduced. The notion of limit, the derivative, the differential, the definite and the indefinite integral were studied. The necessary formulas were developed and applied to numerous practical situations. Attention was focused mainly on the method of the calculus.

In conclusion, this course was a response to certain conditions which may be worthy of mention. There are many students in Stuyvesant, and undoubtedly in other schools, whose intense interest in science, engineering, or mathematics leads them to desire extra-curricular work. The instructor of this course has met students who have studied the calculus, mechanics, and advanced physics, chemistry or mathematics. They feel an urge to go beyond, and frequently do go far beyond their regular work. Such students are only too

often neglected. Furthermore, these students meet in their scientific reading, or will meet soon, mathematical skills and ideas which ordinarily they would not meet for some time. An introduction to such skills and ideas cannot but enhance the understanding of their reading matter. This is especially true when the skills and ideas are immediately applied to their fields of study.

To this end, the topics selected were those of wide application. They served at the same time to integrate the student's mathematics courses, to articulate them with the sciences, and to pave the way for advanced study.

The students' enthusiasm, their devotion, and eagerness to work were sufficient indication of their gratification for this course.

SAMUEL I. ALTERWERGER.
Stuyvesant High School.

THE MEANING OF CHARACTER

The Tenth Year Book of the Department of Superintendence gives seventeen meanings for the word "character." An examination of the definitions reveals fundamental differences in philosophy, in ethics, in psychology. It is the purpose of this paper to discuss the meaning of character from a pragmatic point of view.

A character-rating scheme is in use in the De Witt Clinton High School. The system was fully described in the March, 1933 issue of HIGH POINTS. Whenever a

teacher observes an incident which throws light on a student's character, he may fill out a "character card." If possible, the specific incident is recorded. Descriptive words have not been eliminated. They are used if the incident is so indefinite that trait characterizations are more feasible. No check list appears on the card. Each teacher has free rein to express his own concept of character.

Educators may disagree as to the meaning of character. Yet teachers are constantly making and recording character judgments. May we not by studying these notations get a pragmatic insight into the operational meaning of character?

The figures given below are based upon all the cards submitted in one semester by 205 teachers. There are two main groups. One is labeled "Specific", the other "Descriptive". The specific group consists of a tabulation of all the cards which bear notations of specific instances. The descriptive group consists of a tabulation of all the cards which bear descriptive notations. Cards bearing both specific and descriptive notations were included in the specific group only if the specific incident was clearly indicated. Descriptive cards containing two or more adjectives were grouped under whichever adjective most faithfully portrayed the central thought of the card. Favorable and unfavorable cards referring to the same trait were recorded under the same heading.

In all, 1720 cards were submit-

ulated as specific and 513 as descriptive. Of the total, 1492 were commendatory, 197 unfavorable, and 31 unclassifiable.

Specific

No. of
cards

- 186 squad service
- 160 class-room chores
- 138 coöperation in certain lines
- 133 scholarship
- 112 extra-curricular; clubs
- 66 relationship to other students
- 64 manner, personality
- 52 classroom conduct
- 50 failure to keep appointments
- 42 research, original work
- 35 leadership in certain lines
- 28 school spirit
- 28 interest in certain lines
- 16 improvement
- 15 aesthetic appreciation
- 13 lying
- 11 psychological observations
- 10 truancy
- 10 forgery
- 7 cutting
- 7 home life
- 5 language difficulty
- 4 care of property
- 4 home-work
- 4 discussion
- 3 fire drill
- 2 lateness

1207

Descriptive

- 69 reliable
- 63 diligent

- 43 gentlemanly
- 38 conscientious
- 33 intellectually curious
- 30 effort
- 25 initiative
- 21 honest
- 19 modest
- 18 mature understanding
- 17 impudent
- 14 obedient, loyal
- 13 critical-minded
- 10 self-controlled
- 9 sportsmanship
- 9 healthy, energetic
- 7 efficient
- 5 intelligent
- 5 brave
- 4 humorous
- 2 cultured

513

What conclusions may be drawn from a consideration of the above?

1. The list furnishes a DeWitt Clinton definition of character.

2. Many character judgments revolve about socially useful student activities. The largest group, 186 cards, was awarded for squad service. The next largest group, 160 cards, involved participation in classroom chores. One hundred thirty-eight cards were given for coöperation in some undertaking, and 112 involved extra-curricular or club activities. Although some of these cards may have been given as monitorial rewards, yet their great number indicates a genuine trend.

3. Teachers prefer positive to

negative character judgments. Since cards may refer either to favorable or unfavorable incidents, it was feared for a time that disciplinary notations would abound. The fear was unfounded. In the present instance only 11.6% of the total cards submitted were uncomplimentary. Furthermore, very few cards dealt with homework, cutting, cheating, or similar "schoolish" topics. Contrary to popular belief, teachers are quite humane.

4. Scholarship still plays a part in character judgments. One hundred thirteen cards (6.6%) referred directly to scholarship. This number would have been larger had it been possible to allow for the "halo" effect, i.e. for cards ostensibly made out for character, but actually inspired by scholastic proficiency. An insistence on the recording of specific incidents curbs the "halo" tendency.

5. Seven cards on "home life" show that home conditions are inadequately represented in the present tabulation. For a well rounded character picture supplementary judgments based on other than school reactions are essential.

6. For rating purposes, specific incidents are more meaningful than descriptive words. "John Smith gave an hour of his time daily to the mathematics help class" tells us more about John than does a descriptive word like "helpful".

7. Although a character-card scheme emphasizes specific inci-

dents and minimizes descriptive traits, yet many cards were predominantly descriptive (29.8%). This may be explained in a number of ways. If a student has been a model citizen for an entire semester, teachers find it difficult to get away from descriptive words in characterizing him. Secondly, descriptive words are such an integral part of our thinking about character that their use persists.

8. The concept of character can be clarified by additional investigations of character judgments. Work along the following lines may be of value:

(a) How consistent are the ratings of different teachers for the same student?

(b) How do school ratings correlate with out-of-school reputations?

(c) Are findings in schools other than Clinton consistent with the present conclusions?

EDWARD J. BERNATH.
De Witt Clinton High School.

ISSUES AND FUNCTIONS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

Several magazines have a page or column entitled "Off the Editor's Chest," or words to that effect. That would be a far better title for these thoughts than the rather formidable one given above, since they consist of ideas which ran through my mind as I listened to Professor Briggs' address before

the Association of First Assistants in November 1937 upon the subject of "Problems Facing the Secondary School."

Professor Briggs stated that the problems facing the Secondary Schools today are in one sense similar and in another sense dissimilar to those which faced them one hundred years ago. The similarity consisted in the time lag between theories of progressive education and their incorporation into the practice of the schools. The dissimilarity consisted in the fact that secondary schools today must serve all youth, regardless of capacity for or interest in "book learning."

It seems to me that the fundamental difference between education throughout the ages and education today is as follows: Until relatively recently, both teachers and students above the elementary school grades had the right of "hiring and firing." Students in classical times chose their teachers and if they found study with them unprofitable they sought other teachers. Teachers dismissed students who were not capable of profiting by their instruction. Whereas our universities today still follow this policy, it no longer applies in the secondary schools. Students must take certain subjects whether they like them or not. They must remain in school whether they like it or not. Teachers must keep students in their classes whether they think the stu-

dents can benefit from the work or not. The vital problem facing secondary schools today then, is "What can we do for students who would like to be 'fired', perhaps, but whom we cannot 'fire'?"

Series of discussions, conferences, and studies are now taking place in New York City and elsewhere to attempt to solve the problem of the 4B and 5A achievement level mind in the adolescent body. It is already realized that adjustment classes in elementary school and in junior high school do not solve the problem when the pupil reaches the senior high school level; nor do industrial and vocational senior high schools solve the problem.

We have long been taught in this country that the European system of education is undemocratic because the course of study which pupils are to follow is determined early in their educational life. Yet this is exactly what happens when the junior high school tries to determine whether or not the pupil will or will not be able to follow a certain course of study with profit. Therefore, the sooner the adjustment of the curriculum to the students is made, the better. Our differentiation of courses might better be made at the end of the sixth year in elementary school than at the end of the ninth year.

I recently heard a class discussion in which the class was debating the relative values of staying

in school and of getting a job, as a preparation for 'life.' The majority of them seemed to think it was better to leave school and get a job. This was a class in Economic Citizenship and was composed of students ranging from the second to the eighth term of high school. After hearing the discussion of the class, I said to them, "When you leave school and get a job, you must subject yourself to a certain discipline. You must be on the job on time. You must be efficient, not 65% efficient, but 95% or 100% efficient. Why is it that you are willing to subject yourself to this disciplining on the job, whereas in school you are not always willing to be on time; to do a certain piece of work whether you like it or not?" I could get no genuinely rational answer to this question. The nearest that any student came to giving a reason was, that work was a matter of "bread and butter." Evidently our students are sufficiently utilitarian to subject themselves willingly to discipline where and when they feel that it is necessary. Therefore, I believe that our approach to the problem of interesting the so-called non-academically minded student is not by softening our standards in so far as certain requirements are concerned. On the contrary, these students need a far closer approach to the standards required by industry so far as punctuality, promptness, and

working up to capacity is concerned. There are undoubtedly pupils in our secondary schools today who would be much happier apprenticed in some industry. A lowering in the compulsory school age would undoubtedly be met by tremendous resistance on the part of labor organizations. If we maintain shops in our schools whereby such pupils might be made happy at useful work through producing goods, there would probably be resistance on the part of business which would accuse the government of competing with private industries.

The need to face this situation realistically is one of the outstanding problems of the secondary school today. If labor opposes the entrance into business of pupils who cannot benefit by the type of training they receive in secondary schools, and if business opposes the production of goods by pupils in the secondary schools, then perhaps a system of apprenticeship may be worked out whereby business or labor would cooperate with the school to make itself responsible for the training in industries of these pupils in some way which will not reduce the wage scale on the one hand, nor profits to private industries on the other. The school, however, must retain control over these pupils to insure their education in the direction of good citizenship and worthy use of leisure time.

Special curricula, syllabi, materials, all will help to solve but cannot solve the problem entirely, since the only person who can make sure that each individual student is 95% to 100 efficient on the job is the teacher of that student. By being efficient I mean working up to as near 100% capacity as possible. In the final analysis, the question can be solved only with the closest coöperation of the teacher and this, I think, will mean some reorganization in our system of teacher training. At the present time, the training of teachers is done very largely in snatches. Chairmen take a minute here and there to discuss a problem with the teachers in training; visit their classes as time permits; supply elaborate paper guides and outlines; but really get little time to discuss thoroughly individual teacher problems as they arise and need to be solved. The development of teacher personality can best come through personal contact rather than through text-book and methods-course training.

In the light of present producing methods, teacher personality becomes more important than ever before. It would be unwise to train our students, whatever their calibre, too specifically for a special trade as the relatively rapid changes in production and, hence, in labor methods cause rapid obsolescence of machinery and methods. We need to train the student for three objectives: flexibility, in-

itiative, and recognition of worthy leadership.

Flexibility is necessary to insure on the part of the student easy transition from school to job and from one method to another on the job, as these methods change. This part of the training may be left to the period of apprenticeship if that becomes possible. Initiative is necessary to combat a feeling of helplessness if the type of job for which the student is trained is not available immediately. Our students need to be trained to make jobs for themselves; to recognize opportunities and to seize them, rather than 'to give up' almost immediately. Our relief rolls and WPA projects carry their quota of workers who expect the job to find them. It is the role of the teacher to stiffen the student's backbone, give him confidence, strengthen his character.

Since there is a tendency on the part of the non-academic type of student to wash his hands of responsibility and to dump his problems into society's lap, the teacher must exercise patience, sympathy and firmness. She must persevere in her endeavor to teach perseverance to her students. As the amount of initiative and of independent judgment exercised by these students can be but limited, it is important that they learn to recognize worthy leadership and become willing to accept it. Since these students cannot critically analyze the statements of political,

social and economic demagogues both from the Right and Left, they must be able to put their trust in some one. The ability to recognize sterling character and the willingness to be guided by it is one of the most important phases of training for all students, but especially for these. Here again only personal contact with the right type of teacher can bring fruitful results.

For those students whom we cannot 'fire' these two things are essential. We must provide a system that will discipline them adequately for the job to which they want to go, (though not necessarily train them for a specific job) and we must train teachers who will develop in them a sense of responsibility and the ability to recognize sterling character. Above all, there must be less 'wishful thinking' and more realism in our approach to the problem.

EVELYN B. MARCUS.

James Monroe High School.

DEVELOPING LEADERS AMONG THE JUNIORS

The educator who keeps abreast of current news, realizes that the leaders of tomorrow are sitting before him in the classroom today. The training and guidance that he gives them will determine the type of leader they will become. How shall he develop the potential abilities of these young people? That is the question that challenges him.

About two years ago this same

question was put to the Grade Adviser of the John Adams High School. A partial answer has been found in the Junior Arista, one of the outstanding extracurricular activities of the school.

The Junior Arista is primarily an honor society open to the students who have satisfactorily completed the work of the first, second, third, or fourth term of the school. It consists of about one hundred fifty members, or two per cent of the school's total registration. Each candidate for membership must have certain qualifications. First, he must be an honor student, one who has passed all the major and minor subjects, and has obtained an average of eighty per cent or over. Second, he must present a statement from the Chairman of the Service League saying that he has rendered service to the school during his free time. Third, he must have a satisfactory rating in conduct from each subject teacher, along with an excellent record in attendance and punctuality.

All the honor students with the requisite qualifications are now ready for admission in the Junior Arista. On a certain day in the third month of the term, they assemble in the auditorium. Everything possible is done to make this an impressive occasion. The girls in white blouses and blue ties and the boys in dark suits form a distinctive group when seated in the middle section of the large audi-

torium. An invitation to be present is always extended to the parents of the students. The assembly program of that day does honor to these young people who have brought honor to the school. At the close of a short, inspiring address by Mr. William A. Clarke, Principal of John Adams High School, the candidates rise and pass one by one to the stage to receive a certificate and a pin. Then follows a play in which the parts are taken by present members of the Junior Arista under the direction of the Speech Department. The work done in preparation for the assembly is shared by committees made up of the present members. This is a time when the young students demonstrate poise, thought, and executive ability.

The Junior Arista meets twice a month. At the first meeting that follows the induction of new members, the new Boy Leader and Girl Leader are chosen by ballot. The group then decides upon the theme of the coming meetings. Committees are named and a tentative program is outlined. The second meeting takes the form of a party in order to make the students acquainted with one another. On this occasion the Junior Arista tries to raise a small sum of money to contribute to a school charity.

The theme of the Junior Arista meetings this year is "Avocations that may become vocations." A committee requests a member of

the faculty or of the Junior Arista itself to address the group. The Boy Leader and the Girl Leader take turns in presiding. Mr. Otto Piatti of the Music Department spoke to the group on the music amateur, the joy of ensemble playing, and the work that is required to become a specialist in the field of music. At another meeting Mr. Andrew Brennan of the Health Education Department discussed sports as a hobby, contrasting the amateur with the professional, and pointing out to the students the opportunities offered to them when they are older as counsellors in a summer camp, directors in a recreational center, or teachers in the public schools. On another occasion the former Girl Leader displayed her stamp collection and told the members how to start a collection and then let it grow in a definite direction as the collector advanced in years and knowledge. The Boy Leader one time displayed some miniature aeroplanes made by himself, and gave a fund of information to both the members and the faculty adviser about the opportunities offered by aviation. At the close of each of these informal discussions the students bombard the speaker with questions.

Last year the topic of the Junior Arista meetings was "Know your school." This took the group into the depths of the building where the custodian engineer and his assistant explained the operation of the heating plant, the ventilating

system, and the care of the swimming pool. The printing plant, the shop, and Household Arts Department, and the Cafeteria, each and all gave up their secrets to the young people. It was interesting to note that the boys plied the dietitian with questions about the chemistry of food and balanced meals when the visit was made to the kitchen of the lunch room. No matter what the program of the meetings may be the Junior Arista can always count on the hearty co-operation of the Faculty.

At all the meetings and at the semi-annual party, the faculty adviser keeps herself in the background. Though she guides the Boy and Girl Leaders, yet she lets them feel that the success and prestige of the Junior Arista rest upon their young shoulders. They make capable leaders. It is a delightful experience to sit on the side lines and watch them conduct a meeting and hear them introduce the speaker. No veteran toastmaster could do a better job. They are also mercilessly exacting with committee members.

The boys and girls of the Junior Arista are outstanding not only in scholarship, but also as leaders in many school activities. The Junior Dramatics group, made up largely of Junior Arista students, have entertained the assembly with the following plays: "The Romancers," "The Boor," "The Lighting of the Christmas Tree," "Finders Keepers." The term representatives of terms two, three, and four invariably come from the Junior Arista. The present Girl Leader is the fourth term representative, the president of the Newman Club, and active in sports. The first girl to become president of the General Organization was a former Girl Leader. The boys are equally prominent in the life of the school. Finally the Senior Arista is made up largely of students from the junior honor society. It seems certain that the wholesome influence of this organization will carry over into the lives of the young people outside of school.

MARY L. RILEY.

Faculty Adviser.
John Adams High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

WORDS COME TO LIFE

In each of my English 2 normal and honor classes this term—ending June, 1938—a vocabulary contest provided the zest which for me vocabulary teaching has always lacked. Each class had a vocabulary league of five teams, "chosen up" by the five students who had the best scores on a short preliminary vocabulary test. Words assigned from day to day in the study of *Ivanhoe* and *The Virginian* formed materials for the contest—about 70 words in all by the close of the term. In connection with the daily class work, good definitions were worked out and original sentences given as illustrations. On "unprepared" day each week we held the weekly match, the leader of each team "pitching" words in turn to the members of the team "at bat" against his group.

To advance the standing of his team, the student could also bring in any book or magazine with a list of any of the "contest words" and slips marking pages where these words occurred; also newspaper clippings with such words underlined. Each word so reported scored one point. Then we added poster making; each poster with a drawing or cut-out picture accompanied by an appropriate legend

containing one of the words scored five points. This poster feature proved nearly overwhelming, for in my honor class the contest waxed fast and furious, and I tried not to give a point to a poster containing any kind of error.

About this time, too, the Merriam Publishing Company inaugurated its *Word Game*—W.A.B.C., 9:30 Wednesdays—under the direction of Max Eastman, a thoroughly delightful program tending to stimulate a very modern interest in words. A report on this program added two points for the student's team. For this I asked to have the parent's signature so that reports would not be duplicated.

The contest involved a great amount of bookkeeping; but I feel that the extra work was justified by the interest stimulated, which led to a real grasp of a more mature vocabulary. In fact on the mid-term examination, the vocabulary question, which usually contributes more than its share to the mortality rate, proved of no special difficulty.

As each team were allowed free range in choosing their name, the varying level of intelligence may be judged to an extent from the team names—varying from the April Foos (*sic*) through names with an *Ivanhoe* touch; e.g., Royal Knights and Black Champions—

to the Vocabuleers of my honor class.

On May 26, the contest closed, and one student from each losing team volunteered to act on a committee to arrange a party held on June 16 in class period for the winning team.

That the contest led to more than merely good marks in vocabulary and stimulated interest in class was proved in the last set of compositions, familiar letters. Practically every student in the honor class and several in the other

classes had found occasion to use easily and naturally one or more words from our contest list.

BELLA S. TURK.

Richmond Hill High School.

STUDENTS WHO LEAVE SCHOOL

The table below is a summary of the scholastic achievement of a chance sampling of those students who left Grover Cleveland because they were over seventeen years old or because they obtained an Employment Certificate.

	<i>Number of times taken by students who leave school</i>	<i>Number of times the subject has been failed</i>	<i>% of failures</i>
Science	3108	965	31% failure
Languages	1196	544	45% failure
English	2688	557	21% failure
Stenography	530	223	42% failure
Mathematics	1009	507	50% failure

I think this table lends support to the belief that the present courses in mathematics, languages and stenography are not adjusted

to the level of ability of the type of student who later leaves school.

CHARLES HODES.

Grover Cleveland High School.

REVIEWS

SCHOOL HISTORIES AT WAR
By Arthur Walworth. Harvard University Press, 1938.

The author modestly subtitles his work "A study of the treatment of our wars in the secondary school history books of the United States and in those of its former ene-

mies." It is more than just a study; it is a solution to one of the focal problems in social studies instruction.

For just so long as there have been teachers to whom the irrefutable answer has been given, "But it's in the textbook," for so long

has there been a crying need for something, anything which would cause to be dissipated the halo of "last judgment" which surrounds our secondary school textbooks in the social studies. No one, not even the most naive among us, can leave the reading of the work under current consideration without complete realization that there has never been a textbook in the social studies which did not at some point along our road detour us from a disinterested pursuit of the truth. To ascribe these departures to the persistent influence of pressure groups seems, in the opinion of this reviewer, to oversimplify the problem. It is knit more deeply into the whole fabric of our educational system which, as the Department of Propaganda for our government, is compelled to build a race of future citizens who will subscribe without challenge to the doctrine "My country, right or wrong." And in so doing, those of us who are today's teachers of the citizens of the future are creating an emotional armament in international misunderstanding that no measure of collective action can correct.

In "School Histories at War" the author hurls into confusion our carefully conceived answers as to why we Americans have gone to war. Beginning with the American Revolution, continuing through the War of 1812, the War with Mexico, the Spanish American War, and concluding with our War with

Germany, we are confronted, first with statements from textbooks currently in use in the secondary schools of our former enemies, and second with statements from textbooks now in use at home. All too frequently throughout, the reader is compelled to admit that the differences of opinion which constitute the great body of nationalist rivalries, even in an interdependent world, are the inevitable outcomes of instruction based upon textbooks written for special consumption. The conclusion is unmistakable: it is not that all the others are out of step; it is that they have been listening to a different drum.

Several illustrations will suffice to offer concrete evidence of the foregoing. Present to the young American who has time and again read damning versions of the life and character of George III the following account which his English contemporary will read:

"George III was a thorough Englishman, proud of his country, fond of the people, good-natured, respectable, obstinate. Although the early part of his reign was a failure and he had to pass through a period of unpopularity, he lived to be a popular figure in the country. The domestic life of the first two Georges had not been good. Neither was the life of his son, George IV. The third George was an upright man, living a simple life, not extravagant,

kindly, great deal at Windsor Castle, and used to walk much in the forest and in the roads round the town. He was a familiar figure to everyone for miles around, and was known especially to the schoolboys at Eton, whom he would often stop at the roadside, pat on the head, and ask kindly questions. Many stories, some true, some made up, have gathered around his personality. It is said that, walking in the grounds of Windsor Castle, he stopped to ask a gardener's boy what he earned. The boy discontentedly said: "Meat and drink, a bed, a fire, and a roof." "Why, that's all I get," said the good-natured king as he walked away. (R. B. Mowat, *A New History of Great Britain*, 1931, p. 508.)

As a second case in point, present to our young American fresh from glowing accounts of the Rough Riders and of Dewey's victory at Manila Bay in the Spanish-American War the following which his Spanish schoolboy friend will read:

... Unfortunately, the separatist war... broke out anew in Cuba, thanks to the support of the United States. . . . The United States, maintaining that Spain should at last recognize the independence of Cuba, brought on the conflict between our nation and that powerful republic. They carried the strug-

also to the Philippine archipelago, which was already in revolt against Spain. Some time previously a huge conspiracy had been brewing in the Philippine archipelago, of which the uprising of Cavite in 1872 was the first spark. This was promptly suppressed. But in 1897 a general movement broke out which would have been suppressed likewise if the United States, already at war with Spain over the Cuban question, had not sent a fleet to the Philippines also and destroyed our fleet at Cavite, obliging us to let the Philippine archipelago fall into the hands of the victor. The last platoon of Spanish soldiers to remain there was the Baler detachment, commanded by the glorious Captain Las Morenas, who died for the Cause along with two other officers and twelve soldiers. The heroes of this glorious epilogue of our Philippine dominion held out for more than a year, without receiving any aid...

The United States destroyed our fleets in the waters of Manila and Santiago de Cuba. The battle of Cavite took place the second of May, 1898, and that of Santiago de Cuba the third of July of the same year—both dates of sad memory though devoid of glory. Even though the North American fleets were far superior to ours in number and strength of ships, the Spanish

sailors, who were unable to carry on the fighting to any advantage, proved themselves worthy successors to the glorious losers of Trafalgar and sacrificed their lives heroically as a holocaust for their country. As proof that the indomitable vigor of our race has not been extinguished, there should pass into history the names of Lazaga, Commander of the Oquenda, who, wrapping himself in a flag as a shroud, died on his ship because he was unwilling to abandon it; of Midshipman Fajardo who, seeing that one arm had been completely lopped off by a shot, exclaimed coolly, "It doesn't matter; I still have another for my country"; of Midshipman Saralequi, who was taken to the hospital with both legs shot to pieces and said to the chaplain who was administering the last rites, "Father, do you think that I have done my duty?"; of the artillery sergeant Zaragoza who, his stomach ripped open by grapeshot, asked for a piece of the flag to cover his mortal wound; and of many other heroes of those horrible tragedies. (Espinosa, *Compendio de Historia de Espana*, p. 510-11.)

As a final illustration our young American, who has heard how we entered the war in 1917 to "make the world safe for democracy," may be surprised to learn what the young German of 1938 will read in his high school history textbooks

after they have been revised by pro-Nazi editors:

Wilson, from the first in sympathy with the Entente, was led on to a declaration of war also by American industry and high finance, which were interested in an English victory. (R. Suchenwirth, *Deutsche Geschichte*, 1937, p. 550.)

Wilson was, without doubt, prejudiced against Germany. He was filled with the political theory and cultural views of western Europe and he was also bound by his solicitude for American business interests, which were heavily damaged by the U-boat warfare and which on the other hand wished very much to profit by the war by the delivery of war-supplies. (F. Schnabel, *Geschichte der Neuesten Zeit*, 1936, p. 168.)

The renewed and intensified submarine warfare (February, 1937) gave America the ostensible cause for a declaration of war against Germany (April, 1917). The real causes were economic necessity: America was war-purveyor and creditor of the Entente. (Ebner, *Geschichte der Neuzeit*, 1936, p. 203.)

This reviewer submits that while a procedure such as the foregoing may prove painful, the results measured in terms of international understanding, of appreciation for the points of view of others no matter how far removed, will justify the punishment. And to the

author of this work under review will go an endless debt of gratitude from all of us who as teachers are engaged in the great task of intellectual rehabilitation and redirection of the hearts and minds of young people to a world where "men of good will have learned to subdue the barbarous mechanisms and mechanized barbarisms that now threaten the very existence of civilization."

SIDNEY N. BARNETT.

Richmond Hill High School.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EDUCATION

By E. H. Wilds. W. W. Norton, \$2.75.

This text attempts a survey of the educational philosophies of the past and the present with special emphasis on their contemporary implications. Historical and philosophical backgrounds are vividly etched in to make the interpretation of modern educational issues stand out in significant relief. While the chronological order of events is retained, this is the only remnant of the older, traditional procedure in the writing of histories of education. Dr. Wilds' main purpose, and, in a sense, the only legitimate purpose of the historian, is a vital pointing of our debt to yesterday and the heritage we are creating now for tomorrow.

The organization of material lends a certain freshness to this volume. The educational credos of past and present are treated in

terms of aims, content, methods, and so forth. This makes possible the kind of continuity rarely attained in texts of this nature. It enables the reader to sense progress or regression in terms of immediately sensible data. It makes possible a specific and tangible appraisal of the systole and diastole of educational movements. The reader is not left befogged, as he has so often been in the past, by either diaphanous metaphysics or boringly discrete disquisitions. Each period discussed comes home in some very definite manner to the problems that face teachers today. We feel, as we should feel, the currents of the past in the whirlpool of the present.

A. H. LASS.

LITERATURE, THE LEADING EDUCATOR

By F. P. Donnelly, S.J. Longmans, Green, \$3.00.

The doctrines here enunciated will find a welcome reception in some minds, notably those who have, with Hutchins of Chicago, embraced Artistotelianism and have professed to find in its modern application the solutions for all our ills. Literature, says Mr. Donnelly, "embodies more of man than any other instrument of education." Hence, it educates the whole man, feeds his moral, esthetic, and spiritual elements. As such, it ought to form the bulk of the curriculum. By literature, Mr. Donnelly means simply and unequivocally

"pure" literature, "esthetic" literature, the "eternal verities" sort of literature. Anything less is debased currency.

On the surface, it is difficult to argue with this notion. It is only when we translate its rigidly classical and aristocratic bias into actual classroom terms that its cruel inequities become apparent. For, in accepting this thesis in toto, we are, in effect, depriving at least sixty percent of our students of an education. If nothing but the very highest is acceptable, then it must follow that none but the very best are to be educated in any significant sense.

We have no quarrel with Mr. Donnelly's ardent solicitude for personal, spiritual values. We do not demur at his wholly justifiable attacks upon decadent elements. But we violently refuse to bow to a theory which in essence implies that it is Wordsworth for everybody whether you like him or understand him or not.

We have had quite enough of this in the past. We are just beginning to shake off the dead hand of the past. It is too soon to succumb again to the seductive strains of this other-worldly music. Literature may be more educative than any other one factor in the curriculum. But not for all; certainly not for the 80 I.Q.'s, not for the manual-minded, not for the technical-minded, not for the non-academic pupil. For them, literature, while it must not be rooted out of

their lives, cannot, in the very nature of things, be the leading educator. It may and should be a vital adjunct. But it cannot take the place in these lives of those vital experiences which nourish their master-impulses.

A. H. L.

THE ADOLESCENT

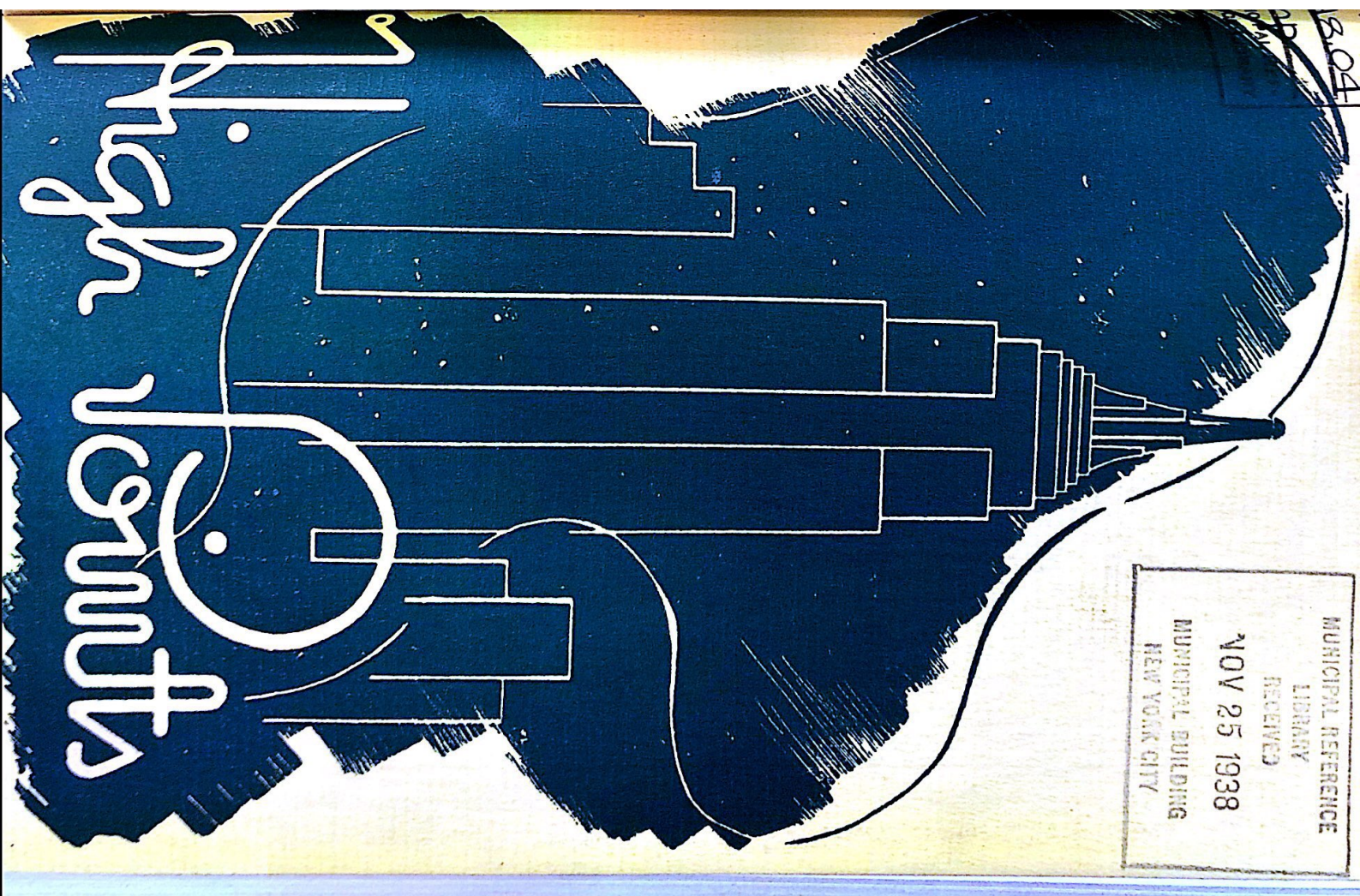
By Ada H. Arlitt. Whittlesey House, \$2.00.

This is a simple, untechnical treatment of the problems of adolescents with sensible suggestions for helping them over a difficult and often disastrous period.

It is intended primarily for parents and covers such matters as emotional and physical growth, training, discipline, education and home life.

Our fear is that admirable as this discussion is, it tends, in so brief a compass, to oversimplify the highly complicated phenomena of adolescence. And in seeking to bring to parents the results of mature reflection in capsule form, it may actually do more harm than good. Of course, this is not necessarily so, but how many parents will heed Pope's dictum to drink deeply or not at all? Certainly, the job of the school would be vastly lightened if parents really knew or even remembered the problems of adolescence. But there still remains, in our minds, a doubt that anything less than a thorough study of adolescence is sufficient.

A. H. L.



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ARE WE INFLUENCING THE ATTITUDES OF OUR STUDENTS?

Among the desirable social and educational objectives of the social studies, none is more important than an understanding and faith in democracy.¹ The Social Studies department of Manual Training High School is attempting to realize this objective by developing in the students the following attitudes: a scientific attitude and a capacity for suspended judgment in order to produce intelligent citizenship; a belief that political, racial, religious, and economic minorities should enjoy equally with the majority the rights of freedom, security, and opportunity; a realization that international problems are more likely to be solved by peaceful methods rather than by war.

Every teacher knows the difficulty of combatting intolerance, prejudice, and unscientific convictions. To replace these "undesirable" attitudes with "desirable" ones is a strenuous task—perhaps the most perplexing problem for the classroom teacher. The method by which we can best determine whether or not we are succeeding at all is to

test the attitudes of our youngsters.

In February 1938, the test which is reproduced below, was given to 600 of our boys and girls. In order to make certain that a typical cross-section of the student body would be tested, both bright, normal, and subnormal classes in the social studies were included in the experiment. These 600 graded pupils were divided into three groups: a group of 200 bright, normal, and subnormal students who had not received any formal high school instruction in the social studies, hereafter to be referred to as Class A; a group of 200 bright, normal, and subnormal pupils (in the social studies) who had completed one year of work in the social studies (European history), hereafter to be known as Class B; and a group of 200 bright, normal, and subnormal boys and girls (in the social studies) who had finished two years of the social studies (European and American history), hereafter to be referred to as Class C. It was believed that the attitudes reported by these three groups would reveal whether students who had progressed through the different courses given by the department had changed their opinions on the questions submitted to them.

¹ See American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, Conclusions and Recommendations, 1934; Beard, Charles A., *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*, 1932; *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, 1934.

1. Age..... 2. Race..... 3. Religion.....
4. Country where father was born
5. Father's occupation
6. Check one of the following:—I am taking Civics (); I have completed History 1 and 2 (); I have completed History 1, 2, 3, 4 ().

There are four groups of questions. *Check (✓) the statement in each group with which you most fully agree.*

Group I (check one)

- a. Communists should not be permitted to spread their ideas.
- b. I think that communism should be adopted in the United States.
- c. Communists should be allowed the same rights that I have to write or speak freely.
- d. All communists should be driven out of this country.

Group II (check one)

- a. I hate the negroes.
- b. A white woman who loves a negro is doing the correct thing if she marries him.
- c. Negroes should realize that they are not as good as white people.
- d. In the United States the negro is entitled to the same rights as the white man.

Group III (check one)

- a. The United States should never go to war except to prevent our territory from being invaded.
- b. I hate all wars and I will not fight in any war.
- c. Instead of jailing the cowards who refuse to go to war, patriotic Americans ought to lynch them.
- d. As citizens of the United States it is our duty to fight for our country whenever war is declared.

Group IV (check one)

- a. Hitler has not had sufficient time to work out his plans and should be given a chance to try out his ideas.
- b. Hitler is right when he forces the Jews to leave Germany.
- c. I think Hitler is a beast who should be shot.
- d. Hitler should allow people to write or speak as they please in Germany.

The fundamental general purposes of the study were to learn the attitudes of our students towards certain important problems confronting our American democracy today and to determine whether instruction in the social studies in the high school played

some part in changing the opinions of our children.

The object of Group I was to determine to what extent pupils appreciate the importance of freedom of speech and press as indispensable elements of democracy. Therefore, the statements in this group were designed to reveal to what degree these children would tolerate minorities since we were of the opinion that this would be a valid criterion for testing their attitudes towards civil liberties. Thus, a student who checked item (a) (Communists should not be permitted to spread their ideas) could not possibly have gained an insight and appreciation of the Voltaire dictum, "I disapprove of what you say but I will defend to the death your right to say it." He who selected item (d) (All communists should be driven out of this country) reveals that he is even more intolerant towards this particular minority. The pupil who recognizes that civil liberties are the rights of minorities as well as majority groups would choose item (c) (Communists should be allowed the same rights that I have to write or speak freely). Item (b) (I think that communism should be adopted in the United States) discloses the student who so thoroughly approves of communism that it may be assumed he would grant freedom of speech and press to "reds." In general, most educators would agree that on this question, people who indicate a

choice of statements in group I would fall roughly within the following categories:

- Group I
- a. conservative
 - b. radical
 - c. liberal
 - d. reactionary

The opinions found in group II were to determine whether the pupils believed that all people in a democracy, regardless of race, were entitled to equality. Thus, a selection of items (a) (I hate the negroes) or (c) (Negroes should realize that they are not as good as white people) shows different degrees of prejudice against the negro. This would indicate that these pupils would not grant the colored man, social, political, or economic equality. The approval of item (b) (A white woman who loves a negro is doing the correct thing if she marries him) would indicate that the student would carry his ideas of racial equality to the other extreme. On the other hand, a choice of item (d) (In the United States the negro is entitled to the same rights as the white man) would reveal the sane tolerance on this question which American citizens ought to have. Again, current educational opinion, we believe, would classify the pupils checking the statements in group II as follows:

- Group II. a. reactionary
b. radical
c. conservative
d. liberal

Group III aimed to disclose what ideas our pupils had in regard to their duty to defend their country in case of war. Item (b) (I hate all wars and I will not fight in any war) reveals an extreme pacifist attitude. The other extreme opinion item (c) (Instead of jailing the cowards who refuse to go to war, patriotic Americans ought to lynch them) indicates a super-patriotic belief that would not permit a rational examination of the causes of war or what role the United States should play in a world war. Those selecting item (a) (The United States should never go to war except to prevent our territory from being invaded) show some knowledge of the distinction between wars of aggression and defense. This, we believe, is the most desirable attitude of the four listed. Item (d) (As citizens of the United States it is our duty to fight for our country whenever war is declared) indicates the mind that will not allow consideration of the justice or injustice of the war to stop him from rushing blindly into the ranks. Concerning the statements in group III, educators would probably agree on the following classification of selectors:

- Group III. a. liberal

- c. reactionary
d. conservative

The purpose of group IV was to determine to what extent our pupils approved or disapproved of dictatorship government. Thus, item (b) (Hitler is right when he forces the Jews to leave Germany) reveals a clear approval of persecution of religious groups — a characteristic that can have no rightful place in a democratic society. Those who check item (a) (Hitler has not had sufficient time to work out his plans and should be given a chance to try out his ideas) indicate the suspended judgment of people who are still weighing democracy against dictatorship. The choice of item (c) (I think Hitler is a beast who should be shot) is evidence of a great emotional hatred of dictatorship. Finally, those who are opposed to dictatorship on more rational grounds would choose item (d) (Hitler should allow people to write or speak as they please in Germany) for it is obvious that personal freedom cannot exist in a dictatorship. A rough systemization of the attitudes revealed by the statements in this group would be:

- Group IV. a. conservative
b. reactionary
c. radical
d. liberal

The actual construction and execution of the test involved these procedures:

1. An attempt was made to word

the statements in such a manner that all students would understand the ideas presented without depending on factual knowledge gained in class for comprehension.

2. An effort was made to avoid revealing to the students what was the "correct" statement in each group, that is, the one approved by the teacher.

3. Each statement in each group represents either a reactionary, conservative, liberal, or radical view towards the particular question. But it may be asked, is not this an arbitrary decision as to what are radical, liberal, conservative, and reactionary opinion? It must be remembered, however, that there is no absolute or scientific definition of a liberal or reactionary attitude. The writer followed this principle in classifying these statements — that the majority of educators, would agree with his interpretations.

4. In all groups, the "desirable" attitude was labelled liberal. The liberal attitude as used in this paper means a belief in the democratic principles of tolerance, freedom, equality, and peace.

5. Pupils were not permitted to sign their names to the test.

6. Where two or more statements in any one group were checked, the paper was disregarded.

7. Age, race, and religion of pupil, country of father's birth and father's occupation were requested as it was felt that this information might throw some light on the environmental background of our students. Such knowledge might help explain why the pupils had certain beliefs and the reason for change or lack of change in attitudes.

The writer wishes to emphasize that he makes no claim as to the infallibility of this study. Its weaknesses are obvious. There will be, undoubtedly, disagreement with the author's classification of the statements as liberal, radical, conservative, and reactionary. Secondly, it would have been more satisfactory to have retested the same 200 students of Class A after they had completed one year of the social studies, and again, after they had completed two years of the social studies. Lastly, this test cannot ascertain scientifically the specific environmental factors that influenced the attitudes and changes in attitudes of these children. However, it is the writer's hope that the work is sufficiently meritorious and interesting to pave the way to more comprehensive and scientific work in this field.²

² Consult Kelley, Truman L., and Krey, August C., *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences*, 1934, for a complete discussion of attitudes testing.

Table 1

Class A (200 Students who have not taken any social study)

Attitude	Group I		Group II		Group III		Group IV		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Reactionary	70	35	0	0	0	0	7	3.5	77	9.6
Conservative	70	35	5	2.5	166	83	7	3.5	248	31
Liberal	54	27	195	97.5	31	15.5	177	88.5	457	57.1
Radical	6	3	0	0	3	1.5	9	4.5	18	2.3

Table 2

Class A

	Age		Race		Religion		Country of Father's Birth		Father's Occupation	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
12	2	1	White	100	Catholic	155	U. S.	101	Skilled &	
13	43	21.5			Protestant	32	Ireland	56	Semi-Skilled	
14	107	53.5			Jewish	13	Poland	11	Workers	60
15	39	19.5					Others	10	Unskilled	30
16	8	4						22	Workers	46
17	1	.5							White Collar	23
									Workers	19
									Civil Serv-	9.5
									ice Workers	11
									Entrepre-	5.5
									neurs	16
									Professional	8
									men	6
									No Replies,	3
									Unemployed,	
									Deceased,	
									& W.P.A.	42
										21

From the above, it appears that these 14 year old youngsters overwhelmingly approved of the "desirable" attitude towards two of the questions: 97.5% would grant the negro equality with the white race; 88.5% registered their rejection of dictatorship. On the question of granting freedom of speech and press to communists, only 30% (27% liberal, 3% radical) would give such toleration. Only 15.5% adopted the liberal view towards war—that the only justifiable war is one of defense. Apparently these students, 77.5% of whom are of the Catholic faith, with 68% coming from working-class homes, enter high school with the fixed idea that "reds" should not be tolerated in our country. It would be interesting to pursue this phase of the study further to determine if possible, with more certainty, the effect of such environmental factors as religion, economic status, and so forth. Furthermore, they believe it is not for them to decide when the United States should go to war. Their duty is to defend this nation without questioning the issues involved in the particular war.

Tables 3 and 4 reveal that the vast majority of our 16 year old pupils have the same "desirable" attitudes concerning equality for negroes (85%) and hatred of dictatorship (70.5%). It should be noted that there is a decrease in liberalism among the students who have completed one year of history (12.5% on the question of negro

equality; 18.5% on the question of opposition to dictatorship). However, there is an increase in the radical opinions on these questions. 2.5% in Class B. (0% in Class A) would grant the negro what appears to be equality without reservation (a white woman who loves a negro is doing the correct thing if she marries him). Twenty-one percent in Class B (an increase of 16.5% over Class A) have a violent hatred for nazism. This group appears to be a little more tolerant towards political minorities; 37.5% of them would allow the communists freedom of speech and press; an increase of 10.5% in the liberal attitude over the students in Class A. Perhaps it should be noted that whereas the economic background of the two groups remains constant (66% in Class B are children of wage-earners, 68% in Class A), there is a decline in the number of Catholic children, 69% in Class B, 77.5% in Class A. In addition, the percentage descended from foreign-born parentage increased in Class B; from 44.5% in Class A it rose to 57.5% in Class B. The most remarkable change occurs on the question of war. Whereas, in Class A only 15.5% voiced the "desirable" attitude towards war, in Class B, these liberals registered 56%. Moreover there was a sharp increase among the pacifists, 15% in Class A, 8% in Class B. We shall attempt to explain this unusual change in the section on general conclusions.

Table 3

Class B (200 Students who have completed one year of history)

Attitude	Group I		Group II		Group III		Group IV		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Reactionary	55	27.5	6	3	3	1.5	10	5	74	9.25
Conservative	69	34.5	19	9.5	69	34.5	7	3.5	164	20.5
Liberal	75	37.5	170	85	112	56	141	70.5	498	62.25
Radical	1	.5	5	2.5	16	8	42	21	64	8

Table 4

Class B

Age			Race		Religion		Country of Father's Birth			Father's Occupation				
	No.	%		No.	%		No.	%		No.	%			
12	1	.5	White	198	99	Catholic	138	69	U. S.	85	42.5	Skilled & Semi-Skilled		
14	3	1.5	Black	1	.5	Protestant	44	22	Italy	44	22	Workers	57	28.5
15	18	9	Red	1	.5	Jewish	17	8.5	Poland	15	7.5	Unskilled		
16	82	41				Atheist	1	.5	Ireland	10	5	Workers	35	17.5
17	58	29							Others	46	23	White Collar		
18	34	17										Workers	31	15.5
19	4	2										Civil Serv-		
												ice Workers	9	4.5
												Entrepre-		
												neurs	26	13
												Professional		
												men	10	5
												No. Replies,		
												Unemployed		
												Deceased &		
												W.P.A.	32	16

Table 5

Class C (200 Students who have completed two years of history)

Attitude	Group I		Group II		Group III		Group IV		Totals	
%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Reactionary	51	25.5	2	1	3	1.5	16	8	72	9
Conservative	88	44	15	7.5	76	38	7	3.5	186	23.25
Liberal	60	30	180	90	102	51	153	76.5	495	61.88
Radical	1	.5	3	1.5	19	9.5	24	12	47	5.87

Table 6

Class C

Age			Race		Religion		Country of Father's Birth				Father's Occupation			
	No.	%		No.	%		No.	%		No.	%		No.	%
15	6	3	White	197	98.5	Catholic	139	69.5	U. S.	91	45.5	Skilled & Semi-Skilled		
16	24	12	Black	2	1	Protestant	50	25	Italy	37	18.5	Workers	50	25
17	78	39	Red	1	.5	Jewish	11	5.5	Ireland	13	6.5	Unskilled		
18	69	34.5							Poland	9	4.5	Workers	32	16
19	18	9							Others	50	25	White Collar		
20	5	2.5										Workers	15	7.5
												Civil Service		
												Workers	12	6
												Entrepreneurs	32	16
												Professional men	12	6
												No Replies, Unemployed, Deceased		
												W.P.A.	47	23.5

A good majority of our 17 and 18 year old students who have completed two years of history show that they (like their fellow students in Classes A and B) hold liberal views on the questions of negro equality, (90%, an increase of 5% over Class B), and opposition to dictatorship (76.5%, an increase of 6% over Class B). 51% give the "desirable" attitude towards war. Though this is a decline of 5% as compared with Class B (56%), it is, to some extent, offset by a rise in pacifist sentiment from 8% in Class B to 9.5% in Class C. This group appears to be less tolerant towards communists, 30%, as contrasted with 37.5% in Class B. Can this be due, in part, to the decrease in the number of those belonging to the families of workers, 54.5% as against 66% in Class B? Note that the Catholic majority in Class C, 69.5% remains practically unchanged (69% in Class B), thus showing that in Class C, the question of economic status may have affected the students' attitudes towards communism while in Class B it may have been the factor of religion.

CONCLUSIONS

What general conclusions may be drawn from this experiment especially in regard to the teacher's ability to inculcate "desirable" opinions?

GROUP I

Will these students give communists in the United States rights of freedom of speech and press? 67% would not. Of this number, 29% would even drive all communists out of the country. Only about 32.5% (31.5% liberal, 1.33% radical) would grant the latter civil liberties. Yet 78.5% of the replies would allow these same democratic rights to the German nation. There appears to be a contradiction. Why should a group, of which 63% are the children of wage-workers, with 54% having foreign-born parents, adhere to such undemocratic ideas towards a political minority in this country? This survey cannot give an absolute answer to this question because the school is only one influence among many which moulds opinion. The home, church, radio, press, movies, and friends perform just as important a function in this process. While this study presents certain facts with respect to economic status, religion, and national origins of our pupils, it is not certain just what effect each factor has had on the attitudes of our children. Further studies along that line are necessary. We may well ask: how potent is the fact that 72% of our children are of a religious faith which is inimical to communism? How potent is economic status? National origin? and so forth.

That the study of history has not developed a strong liberal

Table 7
All Students
Attitudes

Attitudes	Group I			Group II			Group III			Group IV			Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Reactionary	176	29.34	8	1.34	6	1	33	5.5	223	9.3				
Conservative	227	37.83	39	6.5	311	51.84	21	3.5	598	24.92				
Liberal	189	31.5	545	90.83	245	40.83	471	78.5	1450	60.37				
Radical	8	1.33	8	1.33	38	6.33	75	12.5	129	5.37				

Table 8
All Students

Age	Race		Religion		Country of Father's Birth		Father's Occupation							
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%						
12	3	.5	White	595	99.17	Catholic	432	72	U. S.	277	46.16	Skilled &		
13	43	7.17	Black	3	.5	Protestant	126	21	Italy	137	22.83	Semi-Skilled		
14	110	18.33	Red	2	.33	Jewish	41	6.83	Ireland	34	5.67	Workers		
15	63	10.5			Atheist	1	.17	Poland	34	5.67	Unskilled			
16	114	19						Others	118	19.67	Workers			
17	137	22.83										White Collar		
18	103	17.17										Workers		
19	22	3.67										Civil Serv-		
20	5	.83										ice Workers		
												32	5.33	
												Entrepre-		
												neurs	74	12.33
												Professional		
												men	28	4.67
												No Replies,		
												Unemployed,		
												Deceased,		
												W.P.A.	121	20.18

opinion on this question is borne out by the results shown in Group I, Tables 1, 3, and 5.

GROUP II

Will our pupils accord the negro equality with the white man? 91% reply in the affirmative. As evidence that the continued study of history did not produce greater tolerance towards the black race, only 2.5% in Class A had some prejudice against the negro, while in Class B the combined reactionary and conservative opinion equalled 12.5% and in Class C bias against the colored person amounted to 8.5%. Here, too, other factors must be considered. Perhaps the growing physical maturity and consciousness of our older pupils colored their reactions in this matter.

GROUP III

What is their attitude towards war? About 52% would fight in any war declared by the United States no matter what the cause might be. Some 41% believe that the only war that our country should ever enter is one fought to defend American soil from invasion; 6% are extreme pacifists who hate all wars.

On this question, a significant and constant change appears to have taken place. The percentage of students willing to fight in any war that our nation engaged in dropped sharply: Class A, 83%; Class B, 34.5%; Class C, 38%.

On the other hand there was a steep rise in the number of pupils who approved only of a defensive war: Class A, 15.5%; Class B, 56%; Class C, 51%. A conspicuous increase in the number of pacifists also took place: Class A, 1.5%; Class B, 8%, Class C, 9.5%.

Here is a clear-cut example of an "undesirable" opinion replaced by a more "desirable" one. How to account for it? In all probability, the intensive program of peace education carried on at Manual Training High School under the leadership of the Social Studies department is, to some unknown degree, responsible for this remarkable change in attitude towards war. Is not this some indication of what can be done in the matter of attitude building by direct frontal attack?

GROUP IV

What do our pupils think of the Nazi dictatorship? 78.5% reject dictatorship when they register their disapproval of the suppression of freedom in Germany. An extreme, emotional hatred for Hitler is felt by 12.5%. Approval of German anti-semitism and hence of dictatorship government is expressed by only 5.5%.

There is some evidence that a group of the older students, (from 12% to 18%) tend to drop their liberal attitude on this question (Class A, 88.5%; Class B, 70.5%; Class C, 76.5%) and adopt a

more extreme opinion, either reactionary or radical. For example, those commending anti-semitism increased: Class A, 3.5%; Class B, 5%; Class C, 8%. In like manner, those who hated Hitler grew in number: Class A, 4.5%; Class B, 21%; Class C, 12%.

This experiment reveals that the Social Studies department has had the greatest success in its task of influencing opinion by engendering an attitude more desirous of peace than war. On this question, the "desirable" attitude (to restrict warfare to defensive war only) has been inculcated in the minds of our students. Concerning the question of negro equality, our pupils came to us with the "desirable" belief that the colored man is entitled to the same rights as the white man and only slight change of opinion has occurred here. Our task here is to help maintain the liberal opinion of our students as they pursue their high school careers.

On the question of making our students more tolerant toward minority groups, at least to the extent of granting them freedom of speech and press, the department has shown the least progress. Some 70% of our pupils were prejudiced against equal rights for communists when they first entered upon the social studies and approximately the same number leave our class-

rooms retaining the same bias. Here is a grave problem that challenges us. For, to allow our students to go out into the world feeling that a particular political group, no matter how we disagree with its tenets, is not entitled to freedom of speech and press, is to fail to inculcate the basic implications of democracy. The vast majority of our children came into the social studies classroom opposed to dictatorship. Only a small number dropped their liberalism for the coat of religious persecution. Our task here is to keep secure this love for democracy so that "it can't happen here."

It has been shown that the teacher possesses the power to influence and alter opinion. But the undertaking is very difficult. The instruments of social education outside the classroom are too often pitted against the educator's efforts to inculcate "desirable" attitudes and the former frequently frustrate his objectives. However, when a persistent, direct endeavor is made along these lines, when increased knowledge sheds light on controversial questions and when other environmental influences are in harmony with our objectives concerning the formation of attitudes, success will result.

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A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER MAKES SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR PEACE EDUCATION

In a recent issue of *HIGH POINTS* a fellow language teacher, Mr. Herbert Fried of Erasmus Hall High School, remarked that, as Armistice Day approaches, teachers become conscious of the need of some form of peace instruction. This is lamentably true. At this time of the year, some conscientious teacher delivers himself of the customary platitudes on war and peace, some official note of the day is taken in the form of an assembly program, a few speeches, and "peace" dies a tranquil death till next Armistice Day, when the files are again searched through for old programs on peace. This practice is patently ineffective.

Peace education is not something to be tagged on to the curriculum, an elusive something to be forced in at odd moments. Education is peace education. Education is education for peace. Chemistry, English, Music, Spanish and Art are not the pursuits of war. Every subject is a peace subject. In times of war, people do not write poetry, they do not sing, they do not carry on scientific research, they cannot read, nor paint, nor compose. We are educating for life; ergo, we are educating for peace; for war is death, the antithesis of all that is

symbolized by life.

Within my subject, Spanish, I have attempted to keep alive this fundamental concept. I have never artificially motivated a peace discussion in my classes. It has never been necessary. I believe that the type of cultural material we offer in Spanish naturally lends itself to the glorification of the peaceful life. I am offering here some concrete examples of peace education within my subject.

I. Art:

Compare the work of Goya with that of Sorolla. Compare the "Desastres de la Guerra" with the sun-flooded, joyous canvasses of Sorolla. Compare the historic periods which produced these two artists. Show how peace is conducive to the happy life.

II. Architecture:

Procure the slide machine from the visual aid department. Show pictures of the great works of Spanish architecture before the present struggle in Spain, then flash on pictures of these same buildings as they are today.

III. Literature:

Our cultural syllabus calls for an acquaintance with certain outstand-

ing names of Spanish literature. They are mentioned sporadically. I propose a reorganization of these names under a new heading which must compel an awareness of peace, such as:

Writers of the Peaceful Life

1. Fray Luis de León
2. Azorín
3. Calderón
4. Ruben Darío
5. Lose Hermanos Quintero, etc.

IV. *Institutions of Peace:*

1. The universities
2. Schools generally
3. Great Spanish and South American educators, thinkers (Sarmiento, Rodó, etc.)

V. *Painters of Peace:*

1. Murillo
2. El Greco
3. Goya
4. Sorolla
5. Zuloaga, etc.

VI. The suggestion which I am now about to make will call for a complete revaluation of the so-called "época gloriosa" of Spain, that great (?) period, when "el sol no se pone nunca en los dominios de España." If we treat this topic honestly, we must admit, and we must lead our students to realize, that it was precisely during this period of "glory" that Spain was passing through a period of misery, poverty, immorality, and human suffering which has been without parallel in modern history; that while Spain was busy spilling

precious human blood on foreign soil, conquering, enslaving, exploiting, the Spanish people were suffering a national martyrdom from which they never have completely recovered. The proper evaluation of this "great" period is in itself a sermon for peace.

VII. We have in our syllabus many other isolated topics which, if gathered under one heading, would serve to fortify the ideals of peace. I suggest the heading: "Expressions of people at peace with themselves and the world," and I would include under it some of the following topics:

1. La Música
2. El baile
3. Las Fiestas
4. Las Comidas
5. Pelar la pava
6. Los juegos y deportes
7. Los Vestidos
8. El Teatro
9. El Sereno
10. La Siesta
11. La Tertulia
12. Juegos florales

VIII. To those students who cannot be moved to an appreciation of peace on an abstract plane, one can point out the value of peace as a commercial asset. This can be linked up with a discussion of our trade with Latin America.

IX. The Pan American movement can be pointed to as an honest attempt at maintaining peaceful relations between the sister nations of the Western Hemisphere; also

the "Good Neighbor" policy of Roosevelt.

X. "El Cristo de los Andes" is a magnificent symbol of peace. Its success can be pointed to with pride.

Following are some suggestions for debates, discussions, reports:

1. Recent South American Wars. Their causes. How might they have been averted?
2. Which South American nation has the finest peace record? Why?
3. Should there be free trade between the U. S. A. and Latin America?
4. Should this hemisphere isolate itself from Europe in the interest of peace?
5. Should America invest her excess capital in Latin America? Does this practice lead to mutual understanding or to eventual friction?

Lastly, some miscellaneous suggestions:

1. Bring foreign newspapers into class. Not "El Eco," but real,

living newspapers. If the students grasp nothing else, they can read the headlines. They will soon realize that Cubans, Americans, Argentinians, Venezuelans are faced with the same problems of life and death, that human interests transcend the boundaries of nationality, and that peace is the prime concern of all humanity.

2. Encourage correspondence with students in Spanish speaking countries.
3. Keep a living bulletin board in the classroom. It should always be up to the minute with foreign news.
4. Guided extra-curricular reading.

I sincerely hope that these suggestions will invite others from my colleagues. Let us hope that our teaching may prove so effective as to make war and Armistice Days a thing of the past.

SAMUEL LEVENSON.
Samuel Tilden High School.

ENGLISH CURRICULUM THE PLACE OF THE NEWSPAPER IN THE

Although the importance of teaching newspapers and magazines in the secondary school has been stressed in theory in books on secondary education as far back as the turn of the century,¹ this function

in practice has received only a desultory attention even up to the present moment.

For this deplorable situation, several reasons may be advanced. There is still a feeling among some teachers of English that the study of newspapers in the classroom is somewhat out of place. To them

the presence of a daily newspaper side by side with "Silas Marner," "The Sketch Book," or "Idylls of the King" smacks of downright irreverence. These same teachers feel that, for some reason or other, newspapers are not fit subjects for their students' preoccupation. They have a feeling of distrust towards the supposedly insidious blandishments of the public press.

But, by this time, in the modern educational world, it has become generally acknowledged that the traditional literature of the English class is insufficient for the needs of the modern student. Teachers of English are becoming increasingly aware of the fact that classroom activities must prepare their students for life outside the classroom, both now and in their adult years. With this conception, there has come the recognition that the most immediate and most efficient instrument of literary instruction in the English class is the daily newspaper.

Whether for good or bad, it must be recognized that the newspaper is the most powerful, the most pervasive literary influence in modern life. It establishes the standards of taste, of ethics, of language, of political, social and economic thinking. One need only recall that the average daily circulation of newspapers in New York City alone reaches the staggering figure of five million to realize the immense influence of this modern literary

Colossus. From early morning, through the afternoon, and late into the evening the successive editions of the public press work their way into the character and personality of millions of readers.

What is the job of the teacher of English in preparing boys and girls for this inevitable type of reading? Clearly, he cannot brush the whole matter aside, and permit himself to sink gently and comfortably into the sweet memory of the rustic woodlands of Ravelos or of the quaint customs of the old English squirearchy. He must set himself to the difficult but urgent task of training his students to read a newspaper intelligently.

This training must concern itself entirely with those abilities, habits and skills necessary to accomplish the purpose set forth. It should not occupy itself with information relative to the mechanical processes involved in the printing of a paper, nor is it necessary to make the pupil acquainted with the history of newspapers. These matters are mentioned as things to be avoided, because, frequently, they become the *raison d'être* of a so-called study of the newspaper.

After some study and investigation, a committee appointed by the chairman of the English department at James Madison High School, drew up a graded course of study to be followed in all grades of the English course except the third

¹ Chubb, Percival C.: The Teaching of English. Macmillan, 1903, p. 190.

Thomas, C. S.: The Teaching of English. Houghton, Mifflin, 1917, p. 120.

and sixth, which are taken over by the Elocution department. The aim throughout was to teach the student to read a paper intelligently; with insight, with discrimination, with alertness, and with the power derived from information.

Following is a record of the high points touched upon in the newspaper study of the different grades:

Term 1. Emphasis is placed on encouraging the student to read some newspaper regularly. It should be remembered that the immature adolescent mind considers the newspaper to be a vehicle for comic strips, sports, and gossip. Attention is drawn to the different departments of a paper; especially to local current events, the moving picture page, and stories of human interest.

Term 2. Greater attention is now drawn to the news sections, editorials, news of books and plays. Emphasis is placed on the part played by headlines, special features, fullness of reports. Questions may be raised on the sources of news, on accuracy and authenticity.

Term 4. The work of the previous terms is reviewed. Intensive reading of the newspaper is stimulated regardless of the paper's calibre. Skill in reading a news story is developed by having the student

learn to look for the cardinal *w's*—who? when? where? what? Familiarity with editorials is increased, their variety and tie-up with the news noted. Some attention should also be devoted to the problems of circulation and of advertising.

Term 5. The study begun in the preceding term is carried on with more thoroughness. Discuss the importance of typography in headlines; point out their sensational quality; note any tendency to mislead in the headline. The editorial is studied for restraint, absence of bias, effective presentation. Acquaintance with and discriminating reading of feature columns by Walter Lippmann, Heywood Broun, Ernest L. Meyer and others are encouraged. Some attention is drawn to the danger of propagandizing by "editorializing" the news.

Terms 7 and 8. In the fourth and last year of the high school, the work of the previous terms is extended and intensified. Answers are sought to such questions as, "What is all the news fit to print?" "What is meant by 'coloring' of the news?" "How independent can a newspaper's policy be?" Editorials are studied to note their position on the page; their clarity or ambiguity; their forthrightness or studied insidiousness. The importance of circulation is stressed, including its relation to the paper's policy. Advertising is studied, its relation, if any, to the news and

editorial policy noted. Discussion is drawn to the possibility of independent thinking on the part of the feature writers, the foreign correspondents, the book and drama reviewers. What is meant by "freedom of the press"?

It is hoped that at the end of the pupil's high school career, he will approach the reading of a newspaper with an informed mind, with a keen interest, and with an intelligent skepticism. He will demand reliable information and an unbiased manner of presentation. He will be able to distinguish between authenticity and hearsay. He will know the reputation and reliability of nationally known and quoted feature writers. He will recognize the false and misleading headline, the sly insinuation, the half-told truth. He will have a grasp of the forces behind the gathering, editing, and release of public information. With this equipment, our student will form the strongest bulwark against demagoguery and propaganda, and in behalf of a democratic way of living and thinking.

As an illustration of what may be done by way of making the study of the newspaper in the classroom alive and dynamic, the following project is suggested. The writer has found it productive of eager and energetic self-activity.

1. After a study of the contents of a daily newspaper had been made, the class was asked to suggest the topics which seemed

to hold a more sustained interest than the others. These, to the number of seven or eight, were written on the board.

2. By questioning and discussion these were reduced to five in number: The local elections; The Justice Black controversy; The Sino-Japanese situation; Book reviews; Play and motion picture reviews.
3. Committees of students for each topic were then formed, seven or eight in each, to study, select, and gather every available piece of news on their respective topic during the course of one whole week. The articles might be gathered from any newspaper in the city.
4. These articles were submitted daily to a chairman in each committee who proceeded to sort, classify, and select all the material submitted to him.
5. At the end of the week, the chairmen made their reports on the specific news trail that each committee had followed during the week. They referred to the material they had in hand, and quoted chapter and verse from the newspapers read. At the end of each report, the discussion was thrown open to the floor and a period of rapid questioning and stimulating oral controversy followed. At the end of the period the class had discussed in a thorough and intelligent fashion most of the vital news of the week.

A partial list of reading material on the subject includes the following:

Desmond, R. W.	The Press and World Affairs
Lumley, F. E.	The Propaganda Menace
Irwin, W.	Propaganda and the News
Riegel, O. W.	Mobilization for Chaos
Seldes, G.	Freedom of the Press
Seldes, G.	You Can't Print That
Willard, O. G.	Some Newspapers and Some Newspaper Men

SAMUEL A. WHITEMAN.
James Madison High School.

THE BAND AS AN EDUCATIONAL FORCE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Orchestras and bands have existed in the New York City high schools for many years. Before 1930, they were carried on mainly as an extra-curricular activity for students who had already learned to play an instrument, who wished a fuller musical experience in the band or orchestra, and whose interest extended to entertaining at school functions, such as assemblies and athletic games. Seldom was the band or orchestra considered a part of the school curriculum.

In 1930, the first orchestral music teachers were added to the school system. Instrumental music teaching was incorporated into the organization of the high schools. In due time, schools added bands and orchestras to their curriculums with provision made for programming during the school day and with credit allowed towards graduation—usually a half major. Thus bands and orchestras became a part of the school curriculum—just as

English, or mathematics or French. In fact, the supervision of a band rehearsal was made a part of the most recent first assistant examination in secondary school music.

This represents a tremendous change in the aim and philosophy of the band and orchestra. If the band (with which this article is concerned) is to be a part of the school curriculum, it must contribute to the aims and objectives of that school curriculum. It must fit into and aid the functions of the secondary school. It must help achieve the school's purposes as expressed by the philosophy of secondary school education. Though an extra-curricular activity can have as its justification only the development of a student's interest, it is not so with a curricular activity. The latter must be justified in terms of the broad functions and aims of the entire school program. If this cannot be done, it does not belong in the curriculum.

The aims of modern education are not in terms of the subject but in terms of the child. They are concerned with the development of character, of self-discipline, responsibility, initiative, reflective thinking, and democratic experience. Since education concerns itself with the whole child and not with the subject, the band, as a force in that education, must also concern itself with the child and not the subject. This is the philosophy underlying the entire organization of the band as it has been developed at the James Monroe High School in the past year. Anyone disagreeing with this philosophy will probably find the methods and procedure resulting from it equally disagreeable.

In September 1937, the administration of the band, as far as convenient, was officially turned over to its members. One of the five weekly band meetings was devoted to what might be termed a club meeting. Here the structure, plans and projects of the band were proposed, discussed and executed. A president, vice-president and secretary were immediately elected. Discussion soon revealed the need for a variety of committees.

The first committee suggested

was the audition committee. Six members were elected. The duties of the committee were to grant auditions to the members of the band and assign seats on the basis of the auditions. During the term, any member of the band might apply for an audition and for a more advanced seat in his section. The committee heard the applicant and the occupant of the seat in question. They made their decision after both had been given auditions. A form was drawn up by the students of the committee to be used at these auditions. It was mimeographed and publicized among the band members. The entire work of the committee was invaluable in drawing the attention of all the players in the band to the essentials of good performance and in stimulating them toward greater proficiency. This audition procedure developed, it must be remembered, by the students themselves, was the first concrete evidence of the power of the band to develop the reflective thinking, self-criticism, initiative and self-direction which was the aim of the entire activity.

The Audition Blank prepared by the Audition Committee of the James Monroe High School Band, looked like this:—

Name.....	Instrument.....
All items are to be marked one through five. Five indicates the highest mark, and one the lowest.	
Tone	
Phrasing	
Articulation	
Rhythm	
Dynamics	

The next committee organized was the program committee, authorized to sound out opinion among the players and to suggest to the director music they would like to play. Discussion of these suggestions, which were often poor ones because they did not take into consideration the difficulty of performance, impressed the committee members with the necessity for considering such factors as the ability of the ensemble, the adequacy of the band instrumentation, and the spirit and understanding of the players deciding upon a program.

The publicity committee wrote about the activities of the band, the plans, programs and appearances, and released these notices to the school newspaper. A direct outgrowth of the work of this committee was the band scrapbook, a collection of press clippings, photographs, programs, notices and records. An art committee was placed in charge of the keeping of the scrapbook.

To take care of preparations for rehearsals, distribution and collection of folios, and to perform all the necessary librarian functions a service committee was set up.

So much for the skeleton organization. What actually happened is of far greater importance. With a feeling that the band was their band, and its destiny their destiny, the students began to plan their own projects for the term. A dance, sponsored by the band, was

suggested and the real spirit behind the organization was demonstrated. All the other musical organizations of the school were invited. Each member of the band was allowed to bring two friends. A special dance committee was organized. Tickets were mimeographed and a date was set. The band supplied the music, acted as ushers, and welcomed approximately four hundred guests. Their first social activity was a distinct success.

This incident will show the efficiency with which the band met a problem and solved it as a self-governing body. It concerned the collection of books after rehearsal. This may seem an insignificant detail, but with a band of ninety members it can prove to be annoying and difficult. At one of the meetings a service committee member complained that many students neglected to put their music into their folios and leave the folios on their stands. The collection of books was slow and tedious because of the poor coöperation of the players. He asked for suggestions from the band members to simplify his task. The entire method of book collection was brought into the discussion. A substitute plan was adopted. Each day three different members of the band were designated to collect the books. This procedure was approved for these reasons: first, it was unfair to ask the same boys to remain after rehearsal daily for the collection of the books; second,

it was important for each member to learn how important it was to leave his music neat and accessible.

Their next project was a more ambitious one. Although the band had played at assemblies, football games and special occasions, it had never presented its own, bona-fide concert. This suggestion met with great enthusiasm. A rapid succession of committees launched this undertaking. The art committee designed, constructed and distributed the posters; the printing committee arranged for the printing of tickets and programs; the invitation committee invited special

guests; the publicity committee released the news; the program committee assisted in drawing up the program, and the band as a committee of the whole volunteered to act as salesmen. Needless to say, the rehearsals were particularly inspiring. So great was the enthusiasm that Edwin Franko Goldman was invited as guest conductor. He accepted the invitation. This concert brought the term's work to a climax.

As an example of the musical achievement of the band during the term being discussed, a copy of the program is included below:

PROGRAM

Friday, January 21st, 1938

8:30 P.M.

1. Under The Double Eagle—March.....J. F. Wagner
2. Lustspiel OvertureKeler-Bela
3. Old Home Down on the Farm.....Harlow
(Trombone solo with band accompaniment)
Ray Schmidt
4. National Emblem—MarchBagley
5. Ballet EgyptienLuigini
 - I. *Allegro Non Troppe*
 - II. *Allegretto*
 - III. *Andante Sostenuto*
 - IV. *Andante Espressivo, Allegro Non Troppo*

6. Children's MarchGoldman
7. Parade of the Wooden Soldiers.....Jessel
8. FlirtationsClarke
(Trumpet Trio with band accompaniment)
Emanuel Gottlieb
Morton Vogel
Louis Goldberg
9. Victor Herbert Favorites.....Victor Herbert
10. On The Mall.....Goldman
11. Hunting SceneBucalosi

An organization, such as the one described above, points the way towards a greater and greater use of the band in the secondary school. The band can be made a tremendous force in the growth of the child. It can develop not only a love and appreciation of music but also all those concepts of character, discipline, coöperation, reflective thinking, initiative, originality and belief in democracy underlying the entire philosophy of secondary education. But these concomitants

of learning are not automatic results of teaching subject matter. The band must be organized in such a way that these aims are ever in view. In that way can the band become a more and more powerful force in achieving the objectives not only of secondary school music but of the entire secondary school educational program.

IRVING FEIRSTEIN.
James Monroe High School.

TEACHING VOCABULARY ENRICHMENT IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The first step in a class-room-teaching unit devoted to vocabulary-enrichment is a type of motivation which will make the subject of word-study vitally important to the students. At the present time there is considerable interest in

semantics, the meaning of words. The wide sale of Stuart Chase's *The Tyranny of Words*, A. P. Herbert's *What a Word*, the existence of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis with its monthly bulletins, which analyze the words

in the news, the frequent publication of Roget's *Thesaurus* and Soule's *Synonyms* in revised form testify to this interest. Every teacher of English should own the aforementioned books as well as a few others, including Fowler's *Modern English Usage*, Greenough and Kittredge's *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, and Weekley's *The Romance of Words*. Certain students in every class will be eager to read these and other books on words. For additional references to vocabulary building, the pamphlet supplied free of charge to teachers by the G. & C. Merriam Company of Springfield, Massachusetts, entitled *Vocabulary Building, Word Study, and Bibliography* is excellent. The same company's periodical, *Word Study* may also be obtained without charge.

The students should be made aware of the fact that the newspapers and magazines have something about words almost daily. A few recent examples, taken at random, follow:

Common Sense for June, 1938, Stuart Chase's "Government vs. Business: A Short Study in Applied Semantics."

The Christian Science Monitor for May 4, 1938, John Ritchey's "Poetry, the Rediscovery of Words."

In Edwin C. Hill's column, *The Human Side of the News*, in the *New York Journal-American* for May 16, 1938, the following para-

graph appeared:

"Words are supposed to communicate knowledge, in their highest function, but they also communicate prejudice and confusion. Much of their volume is a merely mellifluous outgiving which communicates nothing at all. If they are tools, many of them are dull from over use; if they are the scalpels of precise analysis, many of them are not surgically clean—infected with associations of malice or bigotry. Many serve as any stick to beat a dog. Many are rank swamp growths, no better than voodoo outcries, so far as usefulness in the world today is concerned."

Headlines of articles about words in newspapers include:

One of Dem Loined Boids. Lists Hifalutin 25c Woids (*New York Post*, 4-30-37).

"Fever Frau" Crashes Collegiate Slanguage (*New York Post*, 5-13-37).

Word Study as Key to Success (*New York Sun*, 4-27-38).

Just in Case You Like Wise-cracking (*New York Post*, 5-17-37).

From the *New York Times*:

"Walking Cow" Strikes Is the Chinese Name for Sit-downs (April 9, 1937).

Appeals Court Illiterate in Movie Lingo, Reserves Judgment Until It Is Defined (April 21, 1937).

Dr. Funk's Ten Overworked Words (March 29, 1937).

Rector Has a Name for Hors d'Oeuvres (April 26, 1937).

39 Firemen Felled at a Spelling Bee (April 8, 1937).

Women Excel Men in Enunciation Bee (May 16, 1937).

The study of words will be more interesting if each student keeps a scrap-book containing clippings from newspapers and magazines and a record of new words learned each term. If they develop as strong an interest in words as they reveal in miniature photography, airplane-model building and short-wave-set building, teachers of English need have no fear of the corruption or the loss of the King's English.

II

After the interest in word-study has been aroused, several periods might be devoted to pupil-contributions on all phases of the subject. Those who have studied Latin undoubtedly have learned the meaning of *cognates* and can discuss English and Latin cognates, like *frater* - brother, *pater* - father, *tres-three*. Students might also explain the origin of many English words which were borrowed from Latin: *fratricide*, *parricide*, *trien-nial*. Those who have studied German may want to show how closely related it is to English by citing: *Vater* - father, *bruder* - brother, *schwester* - sister. Perhaps, a future Bréal or Jespersen, now in his senior year, will be able to explain the operation of Grimm's Law.

To make this phase of word-study more graphic, the book published by the G. & C. Merriam Company, *Word Origins*, will prove fascinating. Several hundred words are given pictorial representation, and these pictures remain in the students' memories to be recalled quickly when the words are encountered.

The subject of slang will inevitably arise during these preliminary discussions by students and should be encouraged, as a topic for research and argument. Students to whom etymology and philology are completely unknown will become genuinely interested when the subject of slang is brought up. How can they escape it? They hear it in the talking pictures, on their radio programs, in their play; they read it in the newspapers and popular magazines. Helpful books on the subject are Eric Partridge's *Slang Today and Yesterday*, and Hor-will's *Modern American Usage*. A most amusing series of pictures representing an Englishman's idea of certain American slang expressions was printed in the *New York Post* for April 1, 1938. The expressions pictured were: "nuts to you," "putting the heat on a guy," "a two-timer," "a rotten frame-up," "doublecrossing a guy," "it's curtains to you," "packing a rod," "pipe down," and "a tough mug."

An interesting and entertaining exercise could be made of pictorialization of other slang expressions. The contradictions between the lit-

eral and accepted meanings of these terms will stimulate discrimination in their future use.

Inevitably during these preliminary discussions, the subject of the dictionary will arise. There should be present in the class the promotional material published by all the leading dictionaries so that each student may see a sample page. The G. & C. Merriam Company publishes an extremely useful collection of such pamphlets, which include: a sixteen-page description of the New Merriam-Webster Dictionary giving sample pages and other interesting information. If each student in high school could read such a pamphlet describing this or any other accepted dictionary, he would probably develop a liking for consulting the dictionary—a liking, it must be confessed, which is far too rare at present. *Better Dictionary-Work Habits* by Frank V. Powell of the State Department of Education of Wisconsin, *An Outline for Dictionary Study*, *Guide to Webster's New International Dictionary, Second Edition*, and *The Richness of Webster's New International Dictionary* by Professor Thomas Henry Briggs of Columbia University are other useful booklets.

The publishers of the *Winston Simplified Dictionary for Schools* distribute an interesting pamphlet, *How to Select the Best Dictionary for School Use*.

III

The third step in the unit of vocabulary study, following motivation on the part of the teacher and discussions on the part of the students, is testing. The kind of tests used will depend on the aim of the instructor. If it is the enrichment of vocabulary in general, any number of tests are available. If he is preparing his students for a particular text like Thomas Hardy's *Return of the Native* or Thomas Carlyle's *Essay on Burns*, the difficult words in these respective books must form the content of the text. These words are supplied by the students themselves. The present writer, for example, during several terms of teaching Hardy's novel, asked each student to list the words he did not know in each chapter. The words most frequently indicated after hundreds of students had been queried were used in the formulation of a test on the vocabulary of *The Return of the Native*. Future generations of high school seniors will profit from the mistakes of their predecessors. There seems to be no other scientifically valid way to formulate a vocabulary test based on a literary masterpiece. The teacher is hardly a capable judge of the words which will be difficult for his pupils. Neither will his recollections of his own experiences as a student in high school help, because the composition of the student body, intellectually, economically, and linguistically, has changed. The first

stages in the formulation of these individual tests may seem difficult and trying, but their scientific validity and their usefulness will amply compensate for the initial drudgery.

It is best to have several tests based on one classic. In the *Return of the Native* the difficult words may be arranged by books of the novel, or in gradations of difficulty, or in related groups according to their meaning. Thus twenty words about art (these are frequently observed in almost all of Hardy's novels) could be given as a test on art-terms. Similar groups might be made of abstract terms, adjectives used for description, vivid verbs and the like. We owe it to our students to let them see for themselves just how they compare in the knowledge of a particular book's vocabulary with their classmates and with their predecessors of the same grade.

In making the test, the words should be presented in their sentences as used in the book. The multiple-choice method for determining the meaning has been found most economical to mark. Each instructor may wish to supply other ways of discovering his pupils' knowledge of the difficult words. Experimentation alone can reveal the method best suited to the needs of any particular class or grade.

When the test has been taken and the comparative results read or posted, each student will know his

deficiencies. He need not be concerned with the words he knew. Those which were strange to him require individual attention.

Similarly each student may learn his rating in vocabulary by taking any of the following standardized tests, which have been found useful in their special fields:

Carr *English Vocabulary Test* (American Classical League, East High School Annex, Rochester, N. Y.).

Columbia Research Bureau *English Test*, by H. R. Steeves, Allan Abbott, and Ben D. Wood (World Book Co.).

An English Placement Test, by L. H. Shumaker (University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.).

English Vocabulary, Worksample 95, Form AB (Stevens Institute Bookstore, Hoboken, N. J.).

English Vocabulary, Worksample 95, Form EA (Stevens Institute Bookstore, Hoboken, N. J.).

Haggerty Visual Vocabulary Scale (Elementary School Journal, November 1916.).

Holley Sentence Vocabulary Scale (Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.).

Inglish Tests of English Vocabulary (Ginn).

Junior English Vocabulary, Worksample 176, Form AB (Stevens Institute Bookstore, Hoboken, N. J.).

Neher High School Vocabulary Scale (H. L. Neher, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.).

Plymouth Educational Tests, No.

Chicago, Ill.).

Plymouth Educational Tests, No. 42A, Synonyms (Plymouth Press, Chicago, Ill.).

Plymouth Educational Tests, No. 12-1A, Analogies. (Plymouth Press, Chicago, Ill.).

Pressey Technical Vocabularies of Public School Subjects (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.).

Purdue English Tests. Test 3, Choice of Words; Test 6, Vocabulary (G. C. Brandenburg, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.).

Readers Digest Vocabulary Tests, Lower, Intermediate, Higher. (Published monthly, based on each month's issue of the *Readers Digest*, Pleasantville, N. Y.).

Schutte English Diction Test. (Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.).

Starch English Vocabulary Test. (University Cooperative Co., Madison, Wis.).

Thorndike Test of Word Knowledge. (Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.).

Tressler English Minimum Essentials Test. (Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.).

Witham's English Vocabulary Tests. (J. L. Hammett Co., Cambridge, Mass.).

How is vocabulary growth taught most efficiently? There are various schools of thought. Some believe in formal exercises, such as form the material for the following books:

E. M. Hughes: *Vocabulary Builder* (Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Ind.).

John G. Gilmartin: *Word Study* (Prentice-Hall.).

Garland Greever and Joseph M. Bachelor: *The Century Vocabulary Builder* (Appleton-Century.).

Charles B. Anderson: *The Rapid Vocabulary Builder* (Van Nostrand.).

C. Stephanson Smith: *The Command of Words* (Crowell).

Jessie Macmillan Anderson: *A New Study of English Words* (American Book Co.).

It cannot be denied that a knowledge of Latin and Greek prefixes, suffixes, and roots will enable the student to guess at the meaning of many words met for the first time. Yet it must be emphasized that no word is really mastered until *all* its meanings and nuances and connotations have been studied. Memorizing several thousand words will not improve any one's vocabulary, unless the new knowledge thus acquired can be resolved in terms of the pupil's personal educational achievement.

for the students to use their new words in daily speech and in writing so that they may be told by their teachers whether the words are used correctly or not. Excellent motivation at this point is that passage in Barrie's *Sentimental Tommy* in which the hero literally struggles in his search for the one word to describe a certain group of people. Many passages can be found in literature which relate the arduous efforts of writers to capture the perfect word.

The inculcation in the mind of the student of the idea that the hunt for the expressive word is as exciting as a wild-animal chase is perhaps of greater value in mastering vocabulary than formal exercises. When one reflects upon the small residuum of knowledge of Latin and other foreign language words and expressions retained after years of sincere study, one is less inclined to trust exclusively in the formal exercises.

A large number of enthusiastic teachers of vocabulary have used indirect methods with considerable success. Many articles have appeared in various educational journals describing individual techniques which have led to favorable results. Almost each book on the methods of teaching English has a full-sized section devoted to ways and

Charles Swain Thomas in his *Teaching of English in the Secondary School* lists fourteen different devices. The possibilities are almost endless. Each teacher should know all the successful methods and should create new procedures best adapted to the class under control.

Of greater importance than any device is the will on the part of the student to improve himself in this field. With so much motivation material available, with so many opportunities to hear excellent speeches in radio programs and excellent speech in many of the recent photoplays, the instructor will find many opportunities to drive home the point that a good vocabulary contributes not only to material success,² but is indispensable to an understanding of the world in which we live. We are more word-conscious today than ever before. Too many pupils unfortunately are word-unconscious, and need only the proper stimulation to develop a love and respect for the mother tongue.

JOSEPH MERSAND.

Boys High School.

¹ See the G. & C. Merriam pamphlet *Vocabulary Building*, pp. 11-12 for these articles, 1937.

² See Johnson O'Connor, "Vocabulary and Success", in *Atlantic Monthly*, February, 1934.

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN CONNECTION WITH ABILITY GROUPING

A committee of teachers was appointed by the principal of a senior high school to decide whether or not ability grouping through the formation of special classes for slow pupils, also, for bright pupils, resulted in improved teaching and improved pupil learning. I was appointed chairman of this committee to determine experimentally the evaluation of the special class programming. Incidentally this project was an example of one method of obtaining teacher participation in the formation of administrative policies.

At the first committee meeting a questionnaire was devised and sent to the teachers of special classes, those classes in which were placed exceptionally slow or exceptionally bright pupils. The questionnaire information covered objectives, curricula, methods, results, statistics, evaluation, advantages and disadvantages from the aspect of the pupil and from the viewpoint of the teacher. At subsequent meetings, the questionnaire answers were tabulated and summarized.

Teachers of special classes were aware of the special objectives which could and should be stressed in dealing with slow and bright pupils. The objectives listed by the teachers of the dull classes included

stressing the fundamentals of subject matter, adapting work to mentality of lower level, giving the slow pupil the inspiration of success through simple presentation, and developing efficient study habits. Objectives listed for rapid classes included those of an enriched curriculum, developing appreciation rather than drilling on fundamentals, delving into the history and development of a subject, stressing oral work, developing technique, inspiring pupil to work to the limit of his ability, and encouraging original thinking. In the slow groups the curriculum had been simplified, so that only minimum essentials were considered. In the rapid groups the course of study had been enriched. Methods of teaching had been modified to allow supervised study and a greater amount of drill in the slow groups and to allow less drill and more rapid progress in the bright classes. In all special classes more individual instruction had been given than in a normal class. In the slow classes shorter assignments were given, games and concrete illustrations were used to increase interest, new subject matter was presented at a slower tempo. In the bright classes there was less need for emphasis on fundamentals, more class discussion, independent

research by pupils, unit project work to coordinate all activities, greater emphasis upon extensive reading, more experimentation and laboratory work, and more socialized recitations.

All teachers agreed that the "yard-stick" of results as measured by percentage passing was not a criterion of the success or failure of ability grouping. In the seventeen slow classes the average intelligence quotient was 94, the chronological age 14 years 4 months and the mental age 13 years 8 months. In the twenty-one rapid classes the average intelligence quotient was 119, the chronological age 13 years and the mental age 15 years 2 months. The statistics indicated that the grouping in the rapid classes was more accurate than in the slow classes, since in every case the mental age exceeded the chronological age in the bright classes, while there was a varying result in the slow groups. The committee suggested that every entering pupil be given the Otis Intelligence Test in the senior high school, and that these results rather than the elementary school intelligence quotients be considered in grouping. Teachers of special classes were unanimous in deciding that the advantages of grouping by ability far exceeded any possible disadvantages. The advantages from the aspect of the teacher included provision for individual differences, possibility of adjusting curricula, opportunity of inculcating higher

standards, and stressing of the interest motive. The advantages from the viewpoint of the pupil included greater interest in work, inculcation of attitude of success rather than failure and keener mental stimulus. Disadvantages from the teacher's viewpoint included unscientific method of grouping preventing a homogeneous group, impossibility of preparing for Regents examinations in special classes, absence of inspiration of bright pupils in a slow class, unfitness of slow group for advancement in a regular class with resulting difficulty of programming in a small school. The majority opinion concerning disadvantages to the pupil arising from grouping by ability was that there were no disadvantages.

Finally conclusions deduced from the questionnaire replies were reported, including suggestions for the following term. The suggestions covered the use of the Otis Intelligence Test for all entering pupils, the grouping of pupils by ability in English, science and civics on the basis of the Otis Intelligence Quotient and the elementary school teacher's estimate of ability, programming the same teacher for slow, normal and rapid groups, and a testing program of prognostic and achievement tests to check the validity of the grouping.

The testing program which followed the committee report included the administration of prog-

nosis and achievement tests in English and civics at the beginning and end of the term to a slow, bright and normal control group, three freshman classes taught by the same teachers. The English prognosis test used was the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale. The Haggerty Reading Examination—Sigma 3: Form B was the English

achievement test used. The Haggerty Background Test in Social Studies gave the civics prognosis results and the Brown-Woody Civics Test was given as the civics achievement test. Class means and medians were computed and compared. The prognosis and achievement test results were based on a maximum score of 100.

Test	Slow Class	Rapid Class	Normal Group
Intelligence Test—Mean	88	132	109
Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale			
Test mean	63	78	70
Test median	62	77	72
Grade norm	7.0	12.2	8.4
Age norm	13.5	16.3	14.6
Age mean	14.4	13.5	14.1
Haggerty Reading Examination			
Test mean	52	70	59
Test median	52	70	60
Kepner Civics Test			
Test mean	56	77	68
Test median	57	78	71
Brown-Woody Civics Test			
Test mean	59	76	69
Test median	60	76	69

A study was made to determine the degree of correlation existing between the results of the prognostic and achievement tests in English and in civics. The Pearson coefficient of correlation was calculated to determine these correlations. Graphs and scatter diagrams were drawn to illustrate the correspondence. In the English study, the number of cases was 85, the sum of the products of the deviations from the mean 15,417, the standard deviation of the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale results 13.30 and the standard deviation

of the Haggerty Reading Examination results 21.13, hence $r=.65$. In the civics study, the number of cases was 91, the sum of the products of the deviations from the mean 13,832, the standard deviation of the Kepner Background Test results 14.41 and the standard deviation of the Brown-Woody Civics Test results 15.00, hence $r=.70$.

Using these statistics, conclusions concerning promotion by ability were submitted and program recommendations offered. The test results indicated that the ability

grouping was correctly done on the basis of the intelligence quotient results and the elementary school estimates; that transferring during the term could be done on the basis of the prognosis tests; that the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale may be used validly as a prognosis test in comparison with the Haggerty Achievement Test. A Pearson correlation coefficient of 76 showed exceptionally high correlation of the civics test results with the intelligence quotients, proving that the Kepner Background Test in Social Studies gives valid results when used as a basis for segregating pupils according to ability. The achievement results of the three English classes compared favorably with the prognostic results as indicated by the Thorndike Scale. Almost perfect correspondence was present between achievement as indicated in the Brown-Woody Test and the prognostic results given by the Kepner Background Test in Social Studies. In both subjects, English and civics, there was an exceptionally high correlation between the results of the prognostic and achievement tests, as evidenced by the Pearson correlation coefficient of 65 in English and 70 in civics.

As a result of the study, recommendations were submitted to the faculty at its monthly meeting that promotion by ability be continued from the first to the second term as the best means of requiring higher achievement from the bright class and only minimum essentials from the slow group; that programming on the basis of ability be continued with respect to the first term pupils in English, civics and biology with specific recommendations for the transfer of pupils from the control group to the slow or rapid group provided that their achievement were exceedingly poor or exceptionally good. At the conclusion of the study it was the consensus of opinion among the committee members that ability grouping was advisable; that it resulted in improved teaching and improved pupil learning; also, that the work of the committee and other members of the faculty in participating in the testing program had been effective in securing closer coöperation of the teachers with the administration in the formulation of educational policies with respect to programming pupils.

LILLIAN MOORE.
Far Rockaway High School.

CITIZENSHIP TRAINING THROUGH PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY AFFAIRS

AN APPROACH THROUGH THE COORDINATING COUNCIL IDEA

A recent study of adolescents¹ sought the answer to two important questions: first, what phases of current living do adolescents find most interesting; second, what phases of current living do they find "most serious, challenging and important?" In an effort to reveal the interests and concerns of young people today, approximately 1500 adolescents were asked to rank fifteen areas of human existence, for interest and importance. These established "interests and concerns" were to act as guides in planning the curriculum in secondary education.

To the writer, a teacher of the social studies in one of our large city high schools, the most interesting and significant revelation contained in the study was the finding that this group of adolescents (half of whom attended a New York City high school) ranked "Civic Interests, Attitudes and Responsibilities" as the area of human existence that they considered of least interest and importance to them. As if this did

not indicate a severe enough indictment of our attempts at citizenship training, a study of the newspaper reading habits of boys and girls which has just been completed at the University of Chicago, reports that boys and girls of high school age neglect news about the government in favor of almost any other type of news.²

To what may we attribute our failure to interest high school students in civic matters? Certainly, the explanation is not that the schools have neglected the question of citizenship training. One of the earliest significant studies of secondary education in the United States recommended training in citizenship as one of the seven cardinal principles of education.³ In 1932, when the National Survey of Secondary Education was completed, one of the monographs published in connection with that survey stressed the importance of the social studies. Specifically analyzing the question of objectives in the teaching of the social studies, this monograph reports the objectives cited most frequently in sixty social studies courses throughout the country. A glance at them is instructive. The objective listed most often in these sixty social studies courses was "socio-civic effi-

¹ Symonds, P. M. "Life Problems and Interests of Adolescents," *School Review*, 44:506-18, September, 1936.

² *American Observer*, April 11, 1938.

³ "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," *Ed. Bulletin* No. 17, U. S. Office of Education.

ciency", mentioned 176 times.⁴ Second in importance was "participation in civic activities," listed 127 times. The third most frequently cited objective, "information as a basis for participation in civic affairs" was referred to 116 times.

Finally, last year when the Superintendents Committee on Articulation and Integration in this city reported, it considered training in citizenship as one of the major needs in our schools.⁵ The theme of the school, and especially the social studies taught in the school, as the agency whose chief task is training in citizenship, is a very popular one. A glance at an index to educational publications such as the *Education Index*, would convince even the most skeptical that our failure to interest young people in community problems cannot be blamed on our lack of emphasis on that phase of the school's work.

If the reason for our failure in the vital task of getting adolescents interested in the types of problems that will confront them when they assume the full responsibilities of citizenship cannot be attributed to our failure to stress the problem in our schools, exactly what is the reason for the amazing

⁴Kimmel, W. G. "Instruction in the Social Studies" monograph No. 21, *National Survey of Secondary Education*, Ed. Bulletin No. 17, U. S. Office of Ed.

⁵"Report of the Superintendents Committee on Articulation and Integration," submitted to Supt. Campbell, October, 1937.

⁶Hartford, E. F. "Civic Leadership Through Clubs," *Social Education*, Vol. 2, No. 1.

discrepancy between our objectives and our realization of them? Many explanations have been offered, but boiled down to their minimum essentials, two glaring deficiencies stand out almost universally in our citizenship programs. Firstly, there exists a complacent feeling that teaching subject matter—history, civics, economics, problems of government, and so forth, will make better citizens. We have continued to add new courses to our social studies program, each new addition being hailed as the answer to our problem of making better citizens. But those of us who have had the experience of completing an excellent factual lesson in civics on "The Relationship of the Sanitation to the Health of the City", know how discouraging it is to watch our students leave the room at the end of the period, with no concern for the cleanliness of the room where the lesson was taught. As one writer puts it "...there is no guarantee that the teaching of citizenship subjects in a social studies program throughout the elementary and secondary grades will have any real effect on the type of future citizen."⁶ We must again recognize the ancient truth that "Knowledge is Not Virtue."

The second reason for our failure to make programs of citizenship training effective is closely related to and stems directly from the first. We have been notoriously deficient in providing training for youth in those activities that

will and should be opportunities for practicing and applying the facts that they learned in their social studies classes. One authority in the field sums it up as follows: "Information or fact content is not enough; we must somehow get these young people to live their civics in concrete situations in every school day, in every subject, in school and out."⁷ Or as another writer puts it, "It is through participation that citizenship becomes meaningful."⁸

If these are the reasons why our programs of citizenship training have "bogged down", it becomes clear that any attempt on the part of our schools to make better citizens must keep two fundamental objectives in mind. Stripped of unnecessary verbiage they are: first, we must make democracy really effective by permitting children to practice it while they are still young; second, we must provide opportunities for participation in actual life experiences in citizenship.

As a member of a committee on "Citizenship Training" in one of our high schools, the writer thought primarily in terms of discovering activities that would make possible the attainment of these objectives. The possible types of activities that might be utilized

⁷Hatch, W. R. *Training in Citizenship*. 1926.
⁸Moore, C. B. *Citizenship Through Education*. 1929.

were grouped under the following headings:

- 1—Activities in connection with school subjects to be carried on in the classroom
- 2—Student government activities
- 3—Activities in connection with extra-curricular programs other than student government
- 4—School-sponsored activities involving participation in community affairs.

It must be admitted at the outset that the writer did not feel equally enthusiastic about the value of each of these four groups of activities. To him, the group of activities that contains the greatest hope for effective citizenship training is the one that calls upon the school to sponsor "activities involving participation in community affairs." This is not to underestimate the value of the other groups. Each one has something to offer to a well rounded program of citizenship training. They should, however, in the opinion of the writer, supplement plans for actual community activity, rather than as they often do, serve as very ineffective substitutes for it.

Why this great emphasis on participation in community affairs? Why not greater stress on what the child does in school, in his civics room, at the student council meetings, in the Current Events club? There are at least two good answers to these pertinent queries. First, whereas young people spend 1/12 to 1/14 of their time in

school, they spend 2/5 of their time in the community.⁹ Second, the school is more and more finding itself in competition for the time of our young people, with the settlement house, the movies, dance halls, playgrounds, pool-rooms and so forth. Unless it wants to lose whatever effective hold it now has on the training and development of children, it must attempt to direct their community activities along proper lines, by extending its influence out into the community. To a large extent, the failure of our citizenship programs may be explained in terms of school activities that are divorced from community problems. To be effective the school must become a dynamic force in the life of the child, and this can only be accomplished by its becoming a dynamic force in the life of the community that takes up so much of the child's time. As long as the school refuses to participate in community activities, it loses its best opportunity for effective training in citizenship, the sort of training that calls for participation by our young people in community affairs.

But how can the school become a vital community force? How can it utilize the community as a laboratory for training in citizenship? In answer to these questions, the following approach is suggested, an approach it may be added,

⁹ White House Conference on Child Welfare and Protection. 1930.

which has met with success in various parts of the country. The core of this approach to training in citizenship is the so called community coordinating council. Its use as an instrument of community action had its origin in Berkeley, California in 1919, in the course of several informal talks between the Chief of Police and the Superintendent of Schools on the subject of problem children.¹⁰ The outcome of the talks was not so much a solution of the question of what to do for the problem child, as it was a realization on the part of these officials that some agency was vitally needed to coordinate the activities of the various city departments. To accomplish this, the Berkeley Coordinating Council was organized, made up of representatives from the various official agencies in the city. Its main purpose was to organize all the facilities of the city in behalf of its youth. In our city, Superintendent Campbell recently introduced a similar council when he created "A central committee to organize, develop and coordinate neighborhood groups in making a city-wide attack on maladjustment and delinquency and other social problems of children."¹¹ This effort represents an improvement over the Berkeley Coordinating Council, going even farther in the direction of organizing the community for the benefit of

¹⁰ "Youth — How Communities Can Help," Bulletin 1936, No. 18-1, U. S. Office of Ed.

¹¹ New York Times, January 11, 1938.

youth. In addition to official agencies, various non-official groups are asked to serve on the committee.

But what is the relationship between these coordinating councils and citizenship training for youth? It is in connection with just such adult agencies interested in bettering the community for the benefit of youth that we have our most vital source of effective citizenship training for our high school boys and girls. These young people can and should be called upon to participate in the work of these community agencies. The approach might very easily be made through the establishment of a Junior Coordinating Council in the neighborhood of each of our large city high schools. The school should take the initiative in establishing such councils. The membership of these Junior groups would be recruited from among the boys and girls of a particular high school, who are also members of various community organizations in the neighborhood of the school. Thus representatives from settlement houses, the Junior Chamber of Commerce, the Police Athletic League, churches, Y.M.C.A.'s, from among the students in the school, could be elected by their particular community organizations to serve on the Junior Coordinating Council.

What would be the nature of the activity of such groups? The possibilities are without limit. A few tentative suggestions are the

following:

- a) The recognition and study of all sorts of problems affecting youth in the neighborhood.
- b) The dissemination of factual knowledge about these problems to the rest of the student body, thereby stimulating participation on the part of the other children in the school.
- c) Cooperating with the adult coordinating council (i.e. the equivalent in our city would be the committee appointed by Superintendent Campbell referred to above) by bringing before it questions which it wishes discussed. It might be possible for the junior group to sit in on the deliberations of the adult group in the neighborhood.

Many underprivileged neighborhoods in the city are now faced with problems of housing, delinquency, lack of recreational facilities, unemployment. What an opportunity we are missing when we fail, through a Junior Coordinating Council such as suggested here, or any other practical device to bring our young people into the deliberations, planning and organizing that go into the solution of such community problems. The writer's former school is in just such an underprivileged community. It is badly in need of recreational facilities. Recently, through the efforts of a group organized

essentially along the lines of a coordinating council,¹² the neighborhood has secured much needed facilities for recreation. At the present time, it is concentrating on securing a "Youth Center" for the benefit especially of those of our young people who have left school but who have not as yet secured employment. It is the writer's contention that if the school, through a Junior Coordinating Council, were instrumental in securing all these essential improvements in the community, it would become a much greater force in the lives of the boys and girls of the school, and at the same time, would be an invaluable source for vital citizenship training.

Will it work? It is just another impractical utopian notion or does it represent an idea worth trying? The answer is that just such a Junior group is successfully operating elsewhere. At Berkeley, such a group is at work on several projects at the present moment. They include among others the following practical citizenship activities:

- a—A study of recreational and leisure activities for young people.
- b—An analysis of the counseling services of various non-official community agencies with a view toward setting up a central clearing house

¹² This group consisted of the principal of the high school, a representative from the City Council, a member of the State legislature and representatives from various non-official agencies in the neighborhood of the school.

for those young people who do not belong to any of these non-official agencies.

- c—A group of 8 or 10 older boys are working with probation officers as big brothers for problem children
- d—Studies and reports of juvenile delinquency in the neighborhood.
- e—A speakers bureau of young people available to adult organizations to supply information on:

1. The work of the Junior Coordinating Council
2. Talks on recent social legislation of state and national character
3. Work that young people would like to do in coöperation with adult groups.¹³

An analysis of these activities reveals that they are doing two important things for young people: first, they are "making democracy effective by permitting children to practice it while they are still young"; second, they "provide opportunities for participation in actual life situations and experiences in citizenship." It is primarily through such activities, activities which admit of no separation between school and community, that we can develop effective programs of citizenship training.

ALEXANDER BREINAN.
High School of Science.

¹³ "Youth — How Communities Can Help," Bulletin 1936, No. 18-1, U. S. Office of Ed.

HIGH POINTS' NEW FILM, SLIDE AND RADIO DEPARTMENT

Beginning with an early issue, a new department devoted to educational films, slides and radio programs will appear in HIGH POINTS at frequent intervals. In introducing it, a few basic questions and answers will perhaps serve best to make its purposes and functions clear.

First of all, why is such a regular department necessary? It is needless to dwell upon the rapid growth in the importance and scope of application of audio-visual materials and methods in recent years. It is generally known that experimental demonstration of their value has been followed by substantial vindication in practice throughout the country in almost every subject field. This growth has created several pressing needs, however. It has been made clear that considered techniques are required for success in teaching with the new materials. These must be more widely developed and utilized. The production and distribution of audio-visual aids have expanded so that it is difficult for the average teacher to keep adequately informed. Furthermore, the numerous new instructional films, slides and radio programs require objective evaluation in practice, which is not at present available.

What will the new department do about all this? It will serve as

HIGH POINTS

a practical clearing house for the exchange of valuable audio-visual techniques and general information. In the near future, articles will appear on sources of materials, practical hints in operating projectors, common errors in lesson planning, propaganda in films and radio programs, and the use of audio-visual materials with backward groups. Letters or factual contributions on these and other topics by readers will be welcomed.

A second major function will be the publication of reviews of films, slide sets and educational radio programs based upon actual teaching experiences. Although a few modest steps toward evaluation have been taken by cataloguers, there is at present no comprehensive reviewing service operated solely by educators. Accordingly, a most troublesome problem is presented by the large, heterogeneous mass of films and slide sets, which are offered only by title or with catch-all descriptions, among which chairmen and teachers must choose. It would be extravagant for us to hope to provide at once the solution to this difficulty. Nevertheless, by means of regular reviews of significant new materials as they appear hereafter, and through occasional surveys of the standard ones by individual subject fields, we plan to approach it.

A most appropriate title for the final topic of this introduction would be "A Call for Help." Only

through the free and frank participation of all teachers interested in audio-visual methods can we carry out our program with maximum benefit to everyone. You can help in three vital ways:

1. You can offer suggestions as to topics for articles or you can contribute terse letters or factual articles based on your own experience.

2. If you have had some experience, you can volunteer to serve as a reviewer of new films, slide sets or radio programs in your field.

3. You can volunteer to help in needed experiments to determine the most valuable applications and techniques in using films, slides and radio.

Your co-operation is cordially invited. May we hear from you?

EDWARD G. BERNARD.
Newtown High School.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN AN ADJUSTMENT COURSE

The children in our special adjustment classes come to us fully conscious that they do not fit into the established secretarial course. During the first few weeks of the term, these students show an inability to adjust themselves easily to the customary restraints of classroom routine. Some of these students are handicapped physically; some are nervous, high strung, and show undeveloped ability. Some are handicapped because of environment and most of them come from the homes of the underprivileged classes.

Our first task in this adjustment group is to develop in the child a feeling of her own social importance. We want her to realize that she is a worthy member of the group. Discussions, projects, and instruction on the specific topic of social acceptability help us achieve our objectives. At all times, we are realistic, and graphic; we correlate the work with everyday problems. Very definite techniques in social adaptability are presented. Two days a week are devoted to the study of such topics as:

1. *Appearance*

A. Clothing

1. The Basic Principles of Dress
2. How to Select a Wardrobe
3. Dressing According to Type
4. Accessories
5. Clothing to Suit The Occasion
6. Style, Fashion, Grooming
7. Care and Repair of Clothing
8. Budgeting

B. Principles of Color

2. *Social Acceptability*

A. Voice

1. Voice as a Means of Getting Attention in a Group
2. What are the Signs of the Cultured Voice
 - a. tone, pitch, variety, emphasis in speech, self-control

3. Poise—Avoiding the immature habit of giggling
4. Diction — Vocabulary building; use and non-use of slang

5. Conversation as an Art and as a Social Tool. How to overcome self-consciousness. How to develop an interest in others. The need for studying the Other Person.

6. Small Talk

- B. Real interests—Hobbies
- C. Friendships—How to be a Good Friend; How to keep a Friend.
- D. Coöperation
- E. Tolerance
- F. Progressiveness
- G. Dependability
- H. Rules of conduct and etiquette

These topics are treated in great detail from the standpoint of personal, classroom, and office needs. Vocabulary building is centered around the definite topics mentioned, text book chapters are summarized and original compositions are written. The personal interview in applying for a position, answering the telephone, acknowledging introductions, and other real life situations are dramatized. These students are made fully aware of the social and economic competition they must be prepared to encounter in and out of school. While we stress the fact that it "pays to be good looking," and that a well-

groomed, interesting appearance has a "remunerative value," we also try to develop self-confidence, satisfaction, and the inward grace which comes from the completion of a job well done.

We study face contours and consider different hairdresses for different type faces. We plan budgeted wardrobes. Such questions as, "If you were given \$8.00 with which to purchase one skirt and two blouses for office wear; what fabrics, colors, and style skirt and blouse would you select? How much should you pay for each?"

At no time is a pupil criticized for poor personal appearance. We do, however, capitalize every opportunity to commend and congratulate her for a happy choice in costume, color, or fabric. Hairdress, nails, and general appearance are noted. These seemingly casual remarks and signs of interest on the part of the teacher are often much more helpful than a well-planned lesson on personality and appearance. This self-analysis and serious consideration which is given to the topics of personality, appearance, manners, makes each pupil realize that she is a subject worthy of such study and creates a feeling of self-esteem. A real interest in and a desire for self-improvement is engendered.

Throughout the term, our work on personality projects enables us to treat the topic of social acceptability rather comprehensively. Magazines and newspapers are some of

the sources from which the pupils gather most of the illustrations for their projects. The chapter which deals with personality consists of pictures and articles on such topics as outfits suitable for different occasions. They group illustrations of sport outfits, clothes for the business office, apparel for the more social needs, accessories, make-up equipment, and hairdress styles. Several pupils cut out and include in their projects the "mind your manners" columns which appear in the daily newspapers. The girls enjoy collecting, arranging, pasting, and labeling their illustrations. Labels, summaries, table of contents and title pages are typewritten. A sense of good form, an opportunity to develop good taste and sound judgment in the selection and arrangement of material is engendered. One class period a week is set aside for this work. Initiative, individuality, and artistry are given free play.

An interesting concomitant of this project work which is so definitely an individual activity has been the development of a very fine group spirit. Pupils are on the lookout for any materials which may be of use to their classmates. By developing this group spirit and making each pupil aware of her importance not only to herself but to the members of the group, we accomplish our original purpose.

As the term progresses and we watch the changes in these pupils from dull, listless or unruly indi-

viduals to more pleasant, alert personalities; as we watch the changes in mind sets, attitudes, personal appearance and manners, as we note the growth of pleasure and interest in the task at hand, we begin to think that perhaps we are giving attention to and training along lines which may prove to be of benefit to all adolescents.

This scientific treatment of social forms, the conscious thinking along lines of social acceptability, takes an important activity out of the realm of chance, and trial and error, and makes it more possible for the children in our public high schools to hurdle the barriers and overcome some of the prejudices they are sure to encounter.

LILLIE TULCHIN.

Bryant High School.

SOME EXPERIENCES WITH SPECIAL STUDENTS

A number of the non-academically minded pupils of our Practical Arts Course had been offered a Science Project Course. This course was organized and administered, with necessary modifications, essentially as outlined by the writer in the *High Points* of April, 1935. The class met for two periods each day, and devoted its time to the construction of various devices of a scientific nature.

In consideration of the nature of its student body, the writer set as his main objective the rehabilitation of personality. Below are descriptions of a few experiences with

individuals in this group. These records are not the result of any systematic study, nor has the writer attempted to draw any conclusions from them. They are submitted merely for the possible interest they may hold for the reader.

The descriptions are accurate, the names fictitious.

Demona came into class all chalked up in various colors, and with a supply of red chalk in his hands. "You look like Hallow-e'en," I said, laughing. Then assuming an expression of confidential seriousness, I hinted, "I need red chalk." Demona very obligingly gave me the red chalk, saying, "I have more." He emptied his pocket. I thanked him very much. He was happy. So was I.

Shamen was throwing paper about the room. Speaking to her, after having called her aside, I praised her good appearance, and said that obviously she came from a clean, nice home. She agreed with me. I advised her not to do things which might cause other people to think otherwise.

During the official period, Gobel was shooting paper projectiles by means of a rubber band. I asked him to give me the rubber band. He hesitated. "Let me have the rubber band," I repeated. He objected: "No, it's mine. Why should I?" At my request he saw me after class. "Do you know why I wanted the rubber band?" I asked. "Yes,"

he replied. "Don't get me wrong, Gobel," I told him, "I don't mind if you had a million rubber bands. But you don't have the right to use them to disturb others. The person who insists on playing his radio loudly, late into the night, may be fined, and will have to give up some of his money." Another pupil, standing nearby, joined the discourse, "Yes, there's a fella like that who plays in my back yard. I yell up, 'Shut off that radio,' and he shuts it off." I capitalized on this remark by saying, "Well, he realized that he was disturbing others. A man who drives his car recklessly may have his license revoked. He is endangering the comfort and safety of others. That's fair, isn't it? Of course, you have a right to have rubber bands, just as the man has a right to have a car, as long as he has regard for the rights of others. Here are some more rubber bands for you," I said, handing him several. "I don't care if you have them, just as long as you don't use them to disturb others. Don't you agree with me?" "Yeah." "Now, don't you think that you should have given me the rubber band when I asked you to?" I asked. The reply was, "Yeah." Gobel seemed too dumbfounded to say more.

Wattman was sitting around with nothing to do. I tried to interest him. "Come here, Wattman, I have something good for you." "Aw, I don't want dat project," he

responded in his deep voice. "Oh, all right then," I said, making a motion to put the folder away. Wattman became curious, "What is the project?" he asked. I told him, "I thought you wanted something good to work on; but if you're not interested it's all right with me." "What is it?" he insisted. "Making real good fountain pen ink, just as good as Waterman's." "Aw, I don't want dat. I just bought a bottle of ink yesterday. I'm only wasting my time here. I'm not learnin' nothin'." You ought to give me back my ten cents carfare." I laughed, and left him to himself for a while. Later, I handed him a few project folders which I had selected for the purpose. He looked through them, and finally one caught his fancy. Wattman got to work.

Larry T. came from a poor home. His mother is a self-sacrificing woman who caters to the needs of her children. At the time I visited his home, during the preceding term, his mother told me that Larry is too lazy to get out of bed when she wakes him. (This, apparently, explained his habitual latenesses.) One day I reprimanded Larry for staying out of the room without permission. He replied that he could not understand why I should be so strict on the last day of the term. I explained that school regulations were made for every student alike. He told me, "It's teachers like you that discourage the pupils, even in elementary

school. Those kind of teachers ought to be killed."

I interviewed Larry privately the next day. He began in a plaintive attitude, telling me that, while in elementary school, he was kept in and scolded by the teacher for being quiet and not answering questions. The teachers, he complained, overworked him by assigning too much home work in each subject. He did all the work required. He went on to tell me that his sister is overworked also by being assigned too much homework.

This opportunity for Larry to pour forth his troubles to a sympathetic listener had an apparently stabilizing effect on his temperament. I explained to him that I was very much hurt over his remarks the previous day. He now assured me that I was not one of the teachers who discouraged, and that he would not include me among those who "ought to be killed." I asked, "Larry, would you want me to make an exception of you, and treat you differently from the other boys in the class, in regard to rules of lateness and cutting?" He was sure that he did not want to be an exception, and is willing to abide by the rules made for everybody.

Last term the boys had a program which ended with the sixth period. Now they were upset and angry because the new program includes a seventh period class. Marchini, a very temperamental mem-

ber of the class, addressed his classmates: "Listen, fellas, let's do what da commoonists do. We'll all get together and stay out." Although I overheard this, I made no issue of the matter in the class, aside from catching Marchini's eye, but managed to have a personal conference with him the next day. First, I explained to him that the boys had no basis for complaint, but, on the contrary, had much to be thankful for. He was convinced. Then I said to him, in reference to the "plan," "You can't get away with cutting. When the office finds it out, they will think of you as sneaks, trying to put something over. And, first thing, they'll look for the ring-leader. Whom will they pick on? Now, I know you don't want to be a ring-leader; you didn't mean to be one. You were just thoughtless about the consequences. Now, do you want my advice?" "Yes." "You boys get together, go to your teacher, in a nice way, and admit that you cut. Tell him you are sorry, and that it won't happen again. If he punishes you, take your medicine like a man. You will gain respect that way. He will consider you good sports." Apparently, Marchini was being well impressed, so I continued as follows: "Remember, any time a complaint is made in reference to someone in this class, it reflects on the class as a whole, and I feel very badly about it. You know I try to be very fair and reasonable. I never made a complaint

about anyone in this class. In fact, I tell about the good work the class is doing, and try to smooth things over. After a while, the other teachers may not listen to me." Marchini was very grateful for my advice, and promised to talk to the boys, as I had suggested.

JOSEPH SINGERMAN.

James Monroe High School.

A NEW TYPE OF ACTIVITY PROGRAM FOR MODERN LANGUAGE STUDENTS

This semester, due to the repeated demands of our language students for something more frequent than the regular once-a-term magazine, we decided to run a series of bi-weekly language publications at Jamaica High School. Press agents in German, Spanish, and French classes of the fourth term and above spread the news around that a language paper for each language would appear if contributions were forthcoming and if the students would cooperate. The response was immediate and gratifying.

A representative was appointed for each class. It became his duty to collect articles on class activities from his fellow-students. These representatives constitute the editorial board and meet after session on the day of the deadline to correct proof and to dummy their respective papers. Cartoonists have been enlisted from the various classes and language students with art experience contribute the head-

lines. Typing students rotate in cutting the stencils and prepare the paper for mimeographing by Friday morning.

Up to this point we have succeeded in activizing the entire class; we have helped pupils to branch out from the set forms of grammatical translation to creative work. In addition, we have stimulated them towards using talents developed in other classes, and which otherwise might lie fallow. Thus, after the mimeographing is done under the supervision of the language papers' advisor, the whole effort turns out to be quite a co-operative work.

These one page bulletins for each language have become so popular that the editors, in response to popular demand, are preparing to enlarge their respective issues to two pages. Contributions are pouring in steadily and embrace a wide variety of subjects. Cross-word puzzles have proved extremely popular. Class news, jokes, cartoons, short stories, reviews of pictures and plays ("Jalisco Nunca Pierde," "The Shoemaker's Holiday") articles on the Spanish Jews of New York, notices of club activities, and numerous articles on cultural aspects of the country studied make the contributions extremely varied. All of these show an ever increasing tendency to elaborate and expand the work done in class.

Among the pleasant surprises in running the paper has been the discovery of the ingenuity of the

student editors in stimulating interest in their papers. One girl, who wrote up "The Shoemaker's Holiday," took her article to the Mercury Theatre and was given two tickets to the show. These are to be used, it was decided by the editor, as prizes in a great cross-word puzzle contest to be held before Easter Week. In addition, passes to local Jamaica theaters have been obtained which are to be used as prizes for the best articles printed in the papers. The paper certainly has stimulated initiative among the students.

In addition to presenting club and class news, the papers serve as media for displaying the work done in the upper classes. Thus pupils in the lower grades of work learn what the department offers. The three and four-year classes have contributed glowing descriptions of their classroom activities. This serves to stimulate interest among those students who would otherwise drop out after completing their two or three year language group.

One of the more permanent contributions of this activity has been the creation of a closer feeling of kinship among the students. New friends have been made during the editing and printing of the papers. Ideas which are original are unhesitatingly exchanged so that all the papers may benefit. Thus, "La Voz Escolar," "Figaro" and "Der Ton" have created a spirit of unselfish coöperation which it is a

pleasure to watch.

In summing up the value of this novel project, one could say that it has helped in stimulating further interest in the languages, has provided the students with an incentive to work, and helped infinitely towards building character and personality.

SEYMOUR JANOVSKY.

Jamaica High School.

THE AUDIOMETER—ITS SIGNIFICANCE IN SPEECH TESTING AND THERAPY

In the report of the last White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, it is conservatively estimated that there are ten million people in this country whose hearing is impaired to a degree which seriously interferes with their educational and vocational progress and their proper social integration.

This category does not include the deaf—those people congenitally deaf, or whose hearing apparatus had been destroyed by accident or disease before they formed a concept of sound and speech. The hard of hearing are those whose loss of hearing varies from slightly below normal to almost complete deafness; but there is always some residuum, no matter how infinitesimal.

The problems of these two groups, tremendously different as they are, must be separated. Psychologically, the deaf have never heard and never will; while the hard of hearing did hear, and had that great privilege stolen from

them by the vagaries of fate. Speech work with the deaf necessitates the creation of the concept of sound and speech, and its development, voice control, variety in pitch patterns, the differentiation of spelling from pronunciation in the English language, and the production of sound units. Speech work with the hard of hearing is mostly corrective, and works for accuracy of sound production, pleasant quality, and correct volume. In regard to sound perception, the kinesthetic sense of the deaf must be developed through rhythm and eurhythmics, as the one means of reaching them is through the vibration of other parts of the body rather than the tympanum of the ear. Hearing aids help supplement the residual hearing of the hard of hearing, and lip reading helps to develop the comprehension of both hard of hearing and the deaf.

The layman may argue that it is easy to distinguish a deaf person from one with normal hearing. The writer will cite a case diagnosed in a speech clinic. The subject was a child of three or four, whose frequent sound inaccuracies and substitutions were not of the type found in infantile perseveration. The mother, when questioned, insisted that the child could hear perfectly and had always obeyed orders; but that her attention span was short, and that she was "kinda dumb." While the clinician was questioning the mother, the child became absorbed in an electric

clock on the wall. The tester, sitting directly behind the child, without any warning emitted a high, raucous scream. Both the mother and the students observing from behind a screen jumped an inch or two from their seats. Not a muscle in the child's body so much as twitched, and she continued her relaxed and complete examination of the clock. The diagnosis was simple.

However, all cases are not so easy to diagnose; and usually they are much harder to find. How then, may we find and diagnose hearing deficiencies in our school children? Obviously by using every means we have for scientific determination of hearing accuracy.

The most popular test, in the past and probably at present, is the simple acoumeter — the distance whisper test, the watch ticking test, whistles of varying frequencies—all very inaccurate and much too dependent on the varying conditions of the environment.

A more scientific means of testing hearing is furnished by the audiometer, two varieties of which are necessary for complete and accurate testing. The first is the 4A Audiometer, a screen test for groups, used for the detection of those persons with hearing impairments, but of no use in determining an accurate percentage of hearing loss or of selective deafness. The 4A Audiometer is a spring phonograph with forty sets of ear-phones attached and carried in

trays, so that up to forty persons may be tested at one time. The records reproduce speech, so graded that each group of spoken figures is given a difference in intensity of three sensation units or decibels. The spoken figures are first recorded with an intensity thirty decibels louder than is required of normal hearing, which intensity is then reduced, three decibels at a time, until it is at a point three decibels fainter than normal hearing can perceive. One side of the record is used for each ear. For children under the 5th grade, lists of two digits are spoken; and for all older, lists of three digits, which for variety of tone, are read first by a man, and then by a woman.

In New York, a loss of nine decibels indicates imperfect hearing. As perfect scientific accuracy is not possible, four tests are used for each ear, and the best result taken. This test segregates, in one operation, those persons from a group of up to forty who require a more accurate hearing test and gives the tester a basis for recommendations in regard to medical examinations and treatment.

We now find a need for an instrument which will tell us the individual hearing loss of those persons whom we have discovered. That instrument is the 2A Audiometer, which determines at each pitch or tone of eight chosen frequencies, the faintest sound the person being tested can hear. It is acoustically a generator of ap-

proximately pure tones which may be varied both in pitch and intensity. It consists of:

1. An oscillator, controlled by keys, which produces the tone.
2. An attenuation potentiometer, which varies the intensity.
3. A receiver which carries the tone to the ear.
4. A silent signal to indicate whether or not the tone is heard.
5. A tone interrupter for checking accuracy of response.

The oscillator has a frequency range which extends from 64 to 8192 double vibrations or cycles per second. This range is divided into eight steps of frequencies, in geometric progression from 64 upward, corresponding to the C's on a piano. The speech range of the instrument is calculated as being between 512 and 2048 cycles; and to find the percent hearing loss for speech, calculations are made from the results at 512, 1024 and 2048 cycles.

The following procedure is used in testing:

1. Turn down key for tone, usually beginning with 256 cycles.
2. Decrease to a point on the potentiometer at which the person does not hear.
3. Then increase to a point faintly audible.
4. Use the interrupter to determine the accuracy of the

faintest tone which can be heard.

5. Plot on the audiogram the decibel count of the potentiometer at that pitch.
6. Repeat at the other seven pitches, varying the order.

The curve produced on the audiogram shows hearing efficiency at each frequency, and compares it with the scientific norm. This test scientifically gives a picture of the hearing ability of a person both as a whole and at the eight different frequencies; and allows for the calculation of both a selective hearing loss and one which would affect the perception of speech.

It is heartily recommended by all organizations concerned, such as the New York League for the Hard of Hearing, that all teachers of speech be required to know:

1. The anatomy of the ear as well as that of the vocal mechanism.
2. The psychology of the hard of hearing child, as contrasted with both the normally hearing and the congenitally deaf.
3. Methodology in teaching speech to the hard of hearing.
4. Agencies which will cooperate.
5. And possibly even how to teach lip reading.

The writer applauds these recommendations. We realize that the teacher of speech is under a terrific

handicap while working under present conditions and that to add so much more to his list of requisites enlarges tremendously his personal burden. However, we feel that the only salvation for the field of speech lies in its becoming entirely separate from English, dramatics and interpretation; its becoming more closely allied with education of the handicapped, with psychology and neurology; and finally evolving into a science, rather than an art.

How would audiometer testing and this type of teacher training help both pupil and teacher? The handicapped pupil would no longer be in danger of being accepted as an unintelligent person. His handicap would be recognized; his curriculum adjusted to his ability; his defect treated medically and acoustically; and his speech corrected by a competent person. Also, and quite as important, his vocational training would be adjusted.

The teacher would no longer work with defects caused by hearing deficiencies and gnash his teeth at his apparent inefficiency. His time could be apportioned in aiding the usual speech faults which would show the result of treatment, and in actual speech rehabilitation with those persons showing deficiency of hearing. He might even suggest that, in the future, speech defectives be divided into special remedial groups, as is now being done with reading and arithmetic defectives, and treated competently

and individually by the educational agency of the community.

Finally, the speech of the community would benefit by any reduction made in the number of hearing deficiencies, in which process the teacher might cooperate in the prevention of infectious disease, the discovery of the causes of hearing deterioration and the detection of incipient cases of hearing loss before it is too late to do anything about them.

JEROME SALIT.

Boys High School.

A REVALUATION OF SHAKESPEARE'S "JULIUS CAESAR"

If one were to ask a serious student of the theater to name the most significant event of the 1937-1938 theatrical season he would without a doubt receive the prompt reply: the Mercury production of *Julius Caesar*. Those fortunate enough to have seen the production could easily give several reasons for its success. Foremost of course would be the technical innovations introduced, then the vigor of the acting, and finally the manner in which the serious implications of the play were emphasized and highlighted. For this play of Shakespeare's proved to be an invaluable text for a forceful discussion of today's world problems.

An yet, we in the school system have glibly categorized this play as juvenile, ninth year, an appropriate blood-and-thunder thriller for the excitable, impressionable

adolescent. We have just begun to realize its profound implications, its immense potentialities. What are some of these potentialities?

We could examine the character of Caesar, his motives, his philosophy, all in the light of modern political and economic science. Was he simply a militarist, a hobnailed soldier with a weakness for the myrtle wreath? Was he a lover of the masses, a liberator who chose the sword instead of the pen? Was he a forerunner of the modern empire-maker, our first imperialist? Or was he a vain, egotistical, snobbish demagogue? Or was he a kaiser, a dictator, a duce, a fuehrer? Did he really have to keep the Romans in a continuous state of warmindedness in order to remain in power? So much for Caesar.

And what of Brutus? Was he really a lover of freedom, a believer in the genuine democratic republic of the pre-Caesian days, a true descendant of Decius Brutus, the republic builder? Was he really a latter-day Cato who preferred to take his own life rather than see Caesar destroy the republic? Was Brutus really deceived by Cassius and his political thugs?

Then there is Cassius. What grievance did he bear toward Caesar? Was it purely a personal dislike for this darling of the gods who could not even swim the Tiber? Or was he too a traditionalist who could not accomodate himself to the new order of things?

Or was it a struggle for power between him, his gangsters, and the Caesian forces? Finally, was he another Jack Cade, a Huey Long, a Moscow "wrecker?"

We could also give some attention to that charming anomaly, Mark Antony. Some have called him a political dilettante, a brilliant careerist, an opportunist who quickly attached himself to Caesar, the man of the hour. He has also been called a demagogue, a misguided intellectual with a flair for the rostra. He not only brought the masses to tears, commiserated with them in their sorrow over Caesar's death, but quickly joined in the second triumvirate to establish the Roman Empire and the Pax Romana of Augustus, a polite way of describing the political disfranchisement which these same masses had to endure for 200 years. Then there are those romantic souls who like to think of Antony as the greatest lover who gave up all for love of Cleopatra.

One other character deserves more attention than even Shakespeare gave to him in the play. He of course is Cicero, the bane of high school students' existence. Cicero, at the time of the play, had just completed the nineteenth year after his successful expose of the Catilinarian conspiracy. A republican, an earlier Tom Dewey, an impotent onlooker in the political arena. What was he doing in the Forum nineteen years after his sun had set?

These are just some of the potentialities that a revaluation of *Julius Caesar* reveals to us. We should also be ready now to reassign the book to a higher school grade for a more mature analysis and appreciation. It is my opinion, and that of others, that the seventh term of the high school curriculum offers both room and the intellectual fitness needed for such a study of the play. The seventh term course of study is at present a bit thin in many of the schools and teachers would welcome another book. Also, the student in the seventh term has attained some degree of intellectual curiosity plus a mature point of view on many vital problems. He has already studied European history, American history, and may even have completed the high school course in economics. He is asked to study a book like Burke's "Conciliation" or *Concurrence and Dissent, Understanding America*, and perhaps a Shakespearian play. The first three books are texts based on vital problems of politics, history and economics, problems akin to the aspects of *Julius Caesar* discussed above. In short, this new approach to an old play is in no way incompatible with the seventh term course of study as it now stands.

In order to expedite this new approach I have added a reading supplement which has the distinction of including books which may be used both by the teacher and the students either for preparation

or for further study and follow-up reading.

Caine, Hall: *The Eternal City*.

This novel, although laid in a Rome later than the time of Julius Caesar, is still the finest picture of Rome ever written.

Glover, Halcott: *Hail, Caesar* (in *Wat Tyler and Other Plays*).

A simple play giving another aspect of the many-sided character of Caesar.

Lindsay, Jack: *Caesar Is Dead*.

The story of the conspiracy retold in a simple, exciting and racy style.

Lindsay, Jack: *Rome for Sale*.

A novel based on the Catilinarian conspiracy wherein the important part which Caesar played is fully described. It has, incidentally, a great appeal in that it describes the methods of the gangster, *species Romana*.

Lindsay, Jack: *Marc Antony, His World and His Companions*.

Although a non-fiction book, it will do much to establish the personality of Marc Antony in the mind of the student of *Julius Caesar*.

Shakespeare, William: *Antony and Cleopatra*.

Dryden, John: *All for Love*.

Both of these plays will help to establish more solidly Antony's character, especially the romantic side of it mentioned above. They will also help to set the scene for the action in the latter part of *Julius Caesar*. It is possible that Dryden's version of the story of

the two lovers will be both easier and more interesting to read.

Shaw, G. B.: *Caesar and Cleopatra* (in *Three Plays for Puritans*).

This play may be just a bit too mature, but the delineation of Caesar's character in it is both excellent and attractive. The dramatic form in which it is written makes it even more valuable.

Seldes, George: *Sawdust Caesar*.

Although this is an expose of Mussolini, we feel certain that the student will appreciate the similarities in the technics of the two Caesars, actual and would-be.

Addison, Joseph: *Cato*.

The author of this versatile play has given the best picture of a staunch lover of the old Roman republic who was also one of Caesar's severest critics.

Jonson, Ben: *Catiline*.

The student might like to compare another Elizabethan's analysis of a contemporary and protege of Caesar.

Shakespeare, William: *Henry VI* (Part 2).

The character of Jack Cade, the demagogue, in this play employs tactics much too similar to Catiline's or Cassius' to be denied careful attention.

Shakespeare, William: *Coriolanus*.

Several of the brighter students might like to study the fate of another Roman military hero with the always-interesting Roman comings.

(The following biographies will

do much to give the student a concrete realistic picture of the Caesar Shakespeare wrote about.)

Bevan, W. L.: *The World's Leading Conquerors*.

Buchan, John: *Julius Caesar*.

Dodge, T. A.: *Great Captains*.

Fowler, W. W.: *Heroes of the Nations*.

Froude, J. A.: *Caesar: a sketch*.

Liddell, H. G.: *Life of Julius Caesar* (Biographical series, vol. IV).

Pratt, Fletcher: *Hail, Caesar!*

Plutarch: *Julius Caesar*.

The student will get the exact character of Shakespeare's Julius Caesar in this account; also many of the lines reproduced or refashioned in the play *Julius Caesar*.

Weigall, A.: *The Life and Times of Cleopatra*.

Perhaps Cleopatra was not important to *Julius Caesar* but she was more than incidental in the life of Julius Caesar.

(The following books will add clarity to the military exploits of Caesar preceding the events in *Julius Caesar*.)

Wells: *On Land and Sea With Caesar's Legions*.

Whitehead: *The Standard Bearer*.

Davis: *A Friend of Caesar*.

(The following books are valuable in setting the historical, political and especially the archaeological stage for *Julius Caesar*.)

Harding: *The City of the Seven Hills*.

Hare, A. J. C.: *Walks in Rome*.

Hutton, E.: *Rome*.
Lubbock, Percy: *Roman Pictures*.
Lucius: *Adventures of a Roman Boy*.
Maurel, Andre: *A Month in Rome*.
Shumway: *A Day in Ancient Rome*.

SAMUEL BECKOFF.
New Utrecht High School.

MODEL TEACHER

She does not dentalize her t's
Her skirts are well below her knees.

Her hair is brushed, her nails are
clean,
Upon her desk she does not lean.

For gaining knowledge she's a
vulture,
Her principal commends her
culture.

She always has a lesson plan,
Of latest methods she's a fan.

Her gait is rather brisk and dapper,
She wears a key—Phi Beta Kappa.

But do the boys like one so crisp?
Alas, they fall for "subs" who lisp.

SARAH THORWALD STIEGLITZ.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

THE AIMS AND VALUES OF BOOKKEEPING

Since its earliest days, bookkeeping has been treated as a dignified and valuable tool in the conduct of business. Much importance, for example, was attached to the records of property received and disbursed by the temples and treasure houses of ancient Babylonia and

Egypt. When Pacioli, in 1914, published his notable treatise on double entry bookkeeping, he stated that one of the things required by good business is that "one must be a good bookkeeper and a capable accountant." To train individuals for business, Massachusetts in 1827, surprising as it may seem, passed a law requiring its high schools to teach bookkeeping. It was felt that a knowledge of bookkeeping was essential for one who intended to enter the business world. Indeed, today no business man worthy of the name would do without the aid of bookkeeping.

With the growth of commerce and the consequent multiplication of business transactions to record, the need for trained bookkeepers increased. Private business schools and public high schools set about to meet this demand. Thus the aim of bookkeeping instruction became the vocational one of training individuals specifically to assume bookkeeping duties. For a time this aim was adequate and met a genuine need. But as more and more boys and girls studied bookkeeping to become bookkeepers, the field became overcrowded. Inevitably, the realization came that not all who studied bookkeeping could be absorbed as bookkeepers. Shortly after the World War, the Federal Board for Vocational Education, in its "Survey of Junior Commercial Occupations," showed that only a small percentage of junior work-

ers (under eighteen) held the position of bookkeeper. This situation necessitated a modification of the vocational objective of bookkeeping instruction as well as a change in the methods of teaching bookkeeping and, to complete the picture, a revision of the entire commercial curriculum. No one was to be discouraged from studying bookkeeping; its study, however, was to be justified on grounds other than solely vocational.

To meet the enlarged objective, a committee of New York City bookkeeping teachers prepared a new syllabus in bookkeeping, which is in force at present. "Because of the large number enrolled in the study of the subject," the committee reported, "instruction in bookkeeping can no longer be justified on the basis of vocational value alone, but it must be based also on aims which are distinctly educational, social, and cultural." What are these "general background" aims? In answer to this question, we quote from the list of general aims contained in the syllabus.

"To develop in pupils the ability to interpret accounts and financial statements as a guide to intelligent business management.

"To give pupils the ability to understand and interpret facts contained in current literature dealing with financial and economic affairs.

"To inculcate proper habits, attitudes and ideals necessary for success in the business world and in

the conduct of one's own personal affairs.

"To give pupils a knowledge which will later help them to keep adequate records of their personal transactions."

It will be seen that these aims emphasize the interpretative or consumer values of bookkeeping, or, as some prefer to call them, the economic and social values. Our complex business world must be made comprehensible. Furthermore, with the government constantly increasing its participation in business, it is extremely important that we be able to "understand and interpret facts. . . dealing with financial and economic affairs." The primary aim, therefore, is to prepare the pupil to take his individual place as an intelligent producer and as an intelligent consumer in the social business world.

The study of bookkeeping, then, is designed to aid in the intelligent management not only of business affairs, but also of personal affairs. For, in taking care of our personal matters, we often perform business acts of a more or less complex nature; e. g.; buying on the installment plan, borrowing money from a financial institution, investing, budgeting. Who can deny that a knowledge of business practice and business papers, as well as the ability to keep adequate records, will help in the intelligent management of these personal matters?

In pointing out these values of bookkeeping, we do not wish to

create the impression that a study of bookkeeping guarantees success in the management of business and personal affairs. Many factors, to be sure, play a part in motivating and influencing our everyday acts. We are affected by parents and home conditions, by associations, by experiences with various situations, to mention some of the life-directing forces. Now, assuming that these outside influences are not decidedly adverse in effect, the teacher is in a position, with bookkeeping as a medium, to "inculcate proper habits, attitudes and ideals necessary for success in the business world and in the conduct of one's own personal affairs."

Perhaps a word here concerning "proper habits, attitudes and ideals" will not be amiss. Without going into a discussion as to how they are developed, we may mention some of those that bookkeeping seeks to implant. The outstanding skills are: legibility, accuracy, neatness, orderliness, attention to details, ability to organize information, desire constantly to check one's work, power of analysis, interpretation of written records. The ultimate aim of these habits is, of course, to do better work—work that will yield more intelligible and efficient results. These habits are reinforced by the building up of desirable attitudes and ideals. Among the latter are: spirit of co-operation, sense of responsibility, dependability, initiative, desire to be thorough and honest in getting

results, constructive habit of critical-mindedness, proper social standings, will to perfection. The ultimate aim of these attitudes and ideals is to develop useful personality traits. If these habits, attitudes and ideals form part of an individual's make-up—and bookkeeping offers numerous opportunities for their development—he will be greatly aided in the successful conduct of his business and personal affairs.

MAX BRODER.

Jamaica High School.

FURTHER ATTEMPTS AT GUIDANCE THROUGH ARISTA

In the fall term of 1936, Mr. Alfred Kunitz, then Senate Leader of Arista at Richmond Hill, initiated some attempts at guidance through Arista based on the theory that Arista membership should provide some real training in life experience rather than a mere basking in the glory of having "made Arista." He organized an Arista Senate committee, of which the writer was chairman, to devise a scoring system whereby a candidate for Arista should be judged fairly objectively, and whereby a reasonable standard of comparison of candidates might be established. He then worked out with the Arista members the beginnings of some guidance projects. (See *HIGH POINTS*—January 1937.)

When Mr. Kunitz was transferred to the High School of Music and Arts after only a term's work

with the Arista, the present Senate Leader took over the work with an idea of further experimenting with Arista as the nucleus of a somewhat informal guidance group.

The school had no regularly established guidance policy so the field was clear for whatever suggested itself. The Tutorial Project organized in the fall of 1936 had roused so much enthusiasm on the part of both students and teachers and the results had been so satisfactory, that it seemed wise to continue that work. However, as the demand for tutors so far exceeded the supply of prospective teachers, the students voted to put all Arista Members to work on the Tutorial Project, each one serving as tutor, one hour weekly, in the subject in which he was most proficient. After a year and a half of success with the Tutorial Project, the Arista Tutoring Service was re-organized in the February 1938 term in such a way that any student in need of tutoring made a definite appointment with a registered Arista tutor for the number of hours of instruction the student felt desirable. A room was set aside as meeting place for students and tutors, and a record of registration and appointments was kept. Between February and June 1938, three-hundred forty-one individuals had made and kept appointments. No pressure was brought to bear on students or tutors. The service was voluntary, was managed entirely by the Arista student who served

as Chairman of the Tutoring Service, and appointments were made or declined at the convenience of the students concerned. It is the consensus of opinion that this was the most successful term of the Tutoring Service.

The students evidenced great interest in vocational guidance and, as the Senate Leader is not a trained counselor but has had only some experience in general guidance courses, the burden of the work was placed on the students who served as the vocational guidance committee. The first committee, organized in February 1937, decided to undertake as its task the listing of all material on vocational guidance available in the school library. Seventh term students made up the majority of the committee so that it could function for a year without too much change of personnel. In coöperation with the school library staff, the committee investigated the books and pamphlets on hand in the library, and by April 1937, had progressed far enough to have a vocational guidance exhibit. The committee completed its study of library material in October 1938, and compiled and issued a mimeographed, classified bibliography of vocational guidance literature.

Contact with the Vocational Service for Juniors was established and members of the vocational guidance committee and other interested Arista members attended the Service conferences in the

Spring of 1937 and 1938, and reported their experiences to the Arista group. With the appointment of a Miss Elizabeth Pendry, a trained guidance counselor, in February 1938, the need for a student committee disappeared, but Miss Pendry has found the work begun by the students of value in rousing interest in the more complete program that has since been inaugurated.

In February 1938, the student leaders asked that the Arista group be given some form of aptitude, personality, and vocational guidance tests. This would probably have proved an impossible task for the Senate Leader had she been forced to meet it alone, but with the coöperation of the guidance counselor, a series of tests was given. The students wanted the tests for their own information, but the Senate Leader welcomed the tests as a means of finding out whether the method devised for electing students to Arista really resulted in the choice of students of high scholastic ability, well-rounded personality, and wide variety of interest.

The guidance counselor secured the interest and services of Miss Pauline Hart, a graduate student in guidance from Teachers College, who administered and scored the tests. During the February 1938 term, all Arista seniors were given the *American Psychological Council Scholastic Test for College Freshmen*, the *Leland Stanford*

Vocational Interest Test, and the *Bernreuter Personality Inventory*. The students were keenly interested in the results of their individual tests, were interviewed by either Miss Pendry, the school guidance counselor, or by Miss Hart, who interpreted the results for the students, and in many cases, choice of college, professional school, or possible vocation was influenced by the results of the testing. Students were especially interested in the interpretation of the *Bernreuter Personality Inventory* and were helped to understand their own strong points or weaknesses to be taken into account in dealing with their particular problems.

From the point of view of the Senate Leader, the tests were valuable as seeming to justify the present method of selecting students for membership in Arista. The results indicate that the Arista group, is, as a whole, composed of students of high scholastic ability, wide variation in interest and personality, and a high degree of satisfactory personality adjustment and stability.

It is the belief of the Arista Leader and Senate that Arista should provide opportunity for its members, who vary greatly in their personal interests, to have regular contacts and experiences other than classroom work with members of the faculty and students. To that end, a policy always followed in part, has been made consistent for all Arista members. Each Arista

student is expected to devote three periods weekly to extra service in school.

Such service may be as secretary in a school office, clerical aid to a teacher or administrator, library aid, school guard, or locker-room or emergency room assistant. Whenever possible, students are urged to select the field of service for themselves, but where students fail to find their own "service assignment", a task is allotted by the Senate Leader. In this way, students have experience in working with others. The demand for such Arista assistants far exceeds the supply.

Each Arista student is also urged to participate regularly in at least one extra-curricular student activity. In cases where a student's leisure-time interest is well-established outside of school, extra-curricular activity is not insisted upon.

There is, of course, no scientific way of measuring the effects of the Arista policy upon the individual. If, however, there is any validity in the theory that superior students, given opportunity to use their capabilities within the school community, develop a maturity of mind and emotion and the ability to adjust themselves socially, it seems reasonable to suppose that the present Arista policy is a step in the right direction.

EVELYN KONIGSBERG.
Richmond Hill High School.

THE PLACE OF GENERAL MATHEMATICS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Through many years of experience in the teaching and supervision of Algebra in both Senior and Junior High Schools, we have reached the conclusion that (1) many of the students are totally unfit and unprepared to begin that subject (2) that a large number of these students will never have any occasion to use the algebra as such (3) that the repeated failure in work and tests is inducing an inferiority complex in these students which is undermining not only their self-confidence and respect, but also their health, because of the constant worry and disorders caused by their inability to grasp the subject matter.

We took up the problem of General Mathematics with the Vocational Guidance teacher, Mrs. A. B. Greene. As a result of this conference, on April 29, 1937, we sent questionnaires to those Senior High Schools to which our students are sent.

The questionnaire was as follows:

Clark Junior High School expects to introduce a General Course in Mathematics in September, 1937.

We should like to know:

1. Would your high school accept our students who have taken this course in lieu of Algebra?
2. Would this course be considered as one year of mathe-

matics in any of the groups necessary to qualify for a high school diploma?

3. Would the student be permitted to take Algebra and Geometry should he desire to go on with mathematics?
4. Would he be penalized in any way, i. e. lose time or experience any difficulty in the future?

Replies were received from James Monroe, Evander Childs, High School of Commerce, Morris, Textile, and Haaren High schools. We were informed that our students would be accepted and that the course in general mathematics would be credited as a one year unit toward graduation.

Pupils taking general mathematics in junior high school would not receive credit for both this course and elementary algebra. However, should they take commercial arithmetic or geometry this would be accepted as a two year course.

With this information as a further incentive we were ready to introduce the course in general mathematics in Clark Junior High School.

In June, 1937, we succeeded in having general mathematics programmed for the September term.

Our next problem was to determine who were to take this course. The 8B general group were then given the Orleans prognostic test in Algebra. Those boys having the lowest ratings were selected to

make up a single class in general mathematics.

This class has now completed one term of general mathematics. We have had sufficient time to form an opinion of the worth of this course in our curriculum. We found that the course of study as given in the syllabus issued by New York State for the 9th year general mathematics was too difficult for this group. It seems that those who planned the course overlooked the students who could profit best by such a course.

The State course, therefore, was simplified to fit the students for whom it was intended. The topics were retained in a simplified form. The course of study in general mathematics in Clark Junior High School is as outlined below.

We intend to continue giving Algebra to the "rapid" pupils and possibly to those chosen because of their high I.Q. or because of evidences of interest in that subject.

General Mathematics—1st Term

First 6 Weeks: *Algebra*

Notations, Evaluation, Multiplication, Formulas, Addition, Division, Problems, Subtraction, Equations.

Note: This period is to determine correlation between the Prognostic test, and probability to succeed in Algebra.

7 - 12th Weeks: *Formula*

The use of Common Geometric Formulas.

1. Perimeter: rectangle, square, equilateral triangle, circle.
2. Areas: rectangle, square, triangle, circle, cylinder.
3. Volume: rectangle, solid, cube, cylinder, sphere.
4. Problems.
5. Constructions.

13-15th Weeks: *Study of Numbers*

1. Fundamentals.
2. Percentage—three cases.
3. Problems.

16th Week: *Budget*

17th Week: *Metric system important equivalents*

18th Week: *Review; Algebra, Problems*

19th Week: *Review; Geometric Figures, Problems*

20th Week: *Numerical Computation.*

General Mathematics—2nd Term

First 6 Weeks: *Using per cent in business*

Commercial discount, Successive discounts, Margin, Profit and Loss, Net Proceeds, Salary and Commission.

7th Week: *Interest Formula*

6% 60 day method (all conditions).

8-14th Weeks. *Social Problems Insurance*

1. General Principles
2. Common types

Percentage applications

1. Taxes, installment buying

Statistical Graphs

1. Bar, circle, line

Home Owning

1. Mortgages, amortization, taxes

Changes in occupation and conditions in living

1. Ways of investing money

15-18th Weeks: *Radio and Proportion*

Number problems, similar figures, scale drawings, indirect measurement, trigonometric ratios.

19-20th Weeks: *Review, tests*

It should be borne in mind, however, that this course is exploratory and tentative, dependent on the ability of the student to carry on with a marked degree of success. Too long have curriculum makers thought of the subject matter rather than of the student and of his future interests, likes, and dislikes.

What is the effect of general mathematics on the students? They "love" it. They have regained their self-respect. They are progressing. They are successful. They are improving, not only in mathematics but in their other subjects, for they have learned to know the satisfaction which comes with success.

Much of the success of our program can be attributed to the interest of Mr. Taylor, Mrs. Greene, and also our present principal, Dr. Frank D. Whalen. Without their coöperation, their sympathetic attitude, their foresight, and their

practical manifestation in acknowledging that the student is to be considered in the plan of a course of study, general mathematics would not have found its place into our curriculum.

RUBIN KIRSCHNER.

Clark Junior High School.

P. S. 37, Bronx.

LANGUAGE ASSEMBLY PROGRAMS AT THE EVANDER CHILDS HIGH SCHOOL

In planning a Language Assembly, we must bear in mind that our purpose is not only to entertain pupils but also to interest them in the study of foreign languages. It is easy to entertain them with a song and dance. It is possible to interest them by a talk on the importance and value of knowing a foreign language. I feel, however, that we are more successful in achieving our purposes if we combine these aims, arranging a program that revolves around a main idea and at the same time reaches the entire group. I have found it effective to work out a sketch with some semblance of a plot.

In one of our programs both French and Italian Departments co-operated. We wrote a sketch consisting of a Prologue, a French Scene, an Italian Scene and an Epilogue. In the Prologue, two high school boys are discussing the relative merits of studying French. The boy who doesn't study his lessons finds it all a waste of time. The boy who does looks forward to reading

French works in the original, to traveling abroad and being understood, to entering a French restaurant and knowing what he is ordering. He ends his forceful tirade by giving an imaginary order with great gusto: *hors d'oeuvres, paté de foie gras, poulet rôti, café noir*; he then goes off flinging a *debonair "au revoir"* at his companion. The first boy falls asleep, and awakens to find himself in the *Café de Paris* in Paris—utterly incapable of expressing himself and unable to get anything to eat. He is rescued by a young lady at a table nearby, who, having studied French in the Evander Childs High School, speaks French admirably and helps the young man out of his dilemma.

The next scene, which is the Italian scene, finds our young man on the terrace of a hotel on the Grand Canal in Venice where again he is beset with difficulties. He thinks he would like to disport himself in a boat and asks for something that to the Italian waiter sounds like *botte*. Since *botte* means "blows" in Italian, the young man gets more than what he bargained for. A friend who speaks Italian, happens upon the scene at the crucial moment, of course, and straighten matters out. The young men are then regaled with *vino rosso* and entertainment.

The Epilogue finds our erstwhile uninterested student ready and eager to study his French lesson, and even learn a little Italian to boot.

For our assembly this year we had to work out a program involving four foreign languages, since the French, German, Italian, and Spanish Departments coöperated. We decided to call it "International Accord."

Our first scene takes place in the studies of International Motion Pictures, Inc., Hollywood, California, where they are making foreign pictures. The director is having considerable difficulty attempting to make himself understood by the foreign actors and actresses. A very disagreeable situation is created. The leading Italian actress gets hysterical. The Director tears his hair out. When the President of International Motion Pictures, Inc. comes in he finds the studio in great confusion, everyone in a turmoil. An insignificant studio hand saves the situation.

"Perhaps I can help, Mr. J. B."

"Why, what can you do?" scornfully adds the Director.

"I can speak Italian," says the young man. "I studied it in high school."

While the studio hand smoothes out the situation bringing smiles to the countenances of the various people, the Director invites the President of the company to see the scenes he has already completed in the Projection room.

Here we show in succession our various foreign scenes.

1. Spanish: A balcony scene consisting of a little dialogue be-

tween the dueña and young Spanish girl, and a song.

2. German: Setting: A country inn in the Bavarian Alps. Short Dialogue followed by a Bavarian dance.
3. French: Little Red Riding Hood. Students wear masks to simulate puppets.
4. Italian: Carnival in Venice consisting of a short dialogue and musical number sung to the accompaniment of mandolins and guitars, and ending with the romantic departure of a Venetian lady and gentleman in a gondola.

The last scene takes us back to the studio where the stage hand is rewarded with a raise in salary and a significant statement is made by the President of the concern:

"It comes in handy to know a foreign language or two. Once you understand people everything seems to turn out alright."

We are of course fortunate in having the valuable coöperation of our Art Department. A special group of students who study the designing and constructing of stage sets under the able direction of Miss O'Rourke plan and construct the sets for us. Costumes are designed by the costume design teacher, Miss Baldwin.

We try to incorporate another feature into our program whenever possible, and that is to have the audience take part in the program. Words of fairly familiar songs in the various foreign languages are

flashed on the screen during the short intermission and the entire assembly sings.

The time element is also important. Each one of the scenes need only take a few moments and the whole program need not go over the time generally allotted to an assembly period. The variety and briefness of presentation prevents the interest from lagging.

Thus with this type of program

many ends are achieved; entertainment is provided, aspects of the foreign civilization are presented, practical value of the study of a foreign language is shown, active participation by the students is afforded by the singing of songs, and interest in foreign languages is stimulated.

EMMA MENNA.

Evander Childs High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

"GREAT PLAYS" IMPORTANT NBC EDUCATIONAL FEATURE BOOKED FOR PRODUCTION DURING COMING SCHOOL YEAR

Educators throughout the United States have voiced hearty approval of the announcement that the National Broadcasting Company will present its second series of "Great Plays" each week from October 1938, until May, 1939.

The first series of eleven classic dramas planned to trace the development of the theatre from the Greek to modern Broadway was received so enthusiastically that a more elaborate program has been arranged for the coming school year. A nationwide committee whose membership in each state includes teachers of drama in college and high school, school officials, and officers of the Parents Teachers Association, and Little Theatre organizations will conduct courses pertaining to the plays preceding each broadcast.

The American Library Association in endorsing the "Great Plays" will provide for their patrons copies of the masterpieces and complete reference material on the development of the drama. The splendid support which the Public Libraries will give throughout the country will aid the listener materially in his preparation for the broadcasts. These great plays will be the chief works of representative dramatists whose masterpieces caused the spotlight of the theatre world to be turned on their respective countries of Greece, Italy, England, France, Germany, Spain, Norway, Russia, Belgium, Ireland, Scotland, and America.

A study manual is being prepared which will give the historic background of each play, the plot, a sketch of the author's life, facts about the premiere of the production and the theatre in which the play was first presented. The plan approved for study is as follows:

The plays to be broadcast will be placed on the suggested reading lists in various school departments, a bibliography will be posted as reference material covering each play. Students will be asked to listen to each broadcast and hand to their instructors a brief summary of drama appreciation. These papers will then be sent to NBC where a complete record of the audience response will be thoroughly evaluated.

Dr. James Rowland Angell, educational counsellor of the National Broadcasting Company, in a recent statement said, "A great deal has been done to further the appreciation and study of music and we feel that the same opportunity should be offered to students and patrons of the theatre. New series of great plays will parallel courses taught in departments of drama in high schools and colleges. There is an ever increasing demand for the classics which have made theatrical history and we believe that Great Plays will satisfy in a large measure the desires of a theatre going public which today does not have the opportunity of seeing the masterpieces which were formerly presented by professional companies on cross-country tours."

The plays to be broadcast include Euripides, *The Trojan Woman*; *Everyman*; *The Great Magician*, a commedia dell'arte; Marlowe's *Dr. Faustus*; Shakespeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream*, *Julius Caesar* and *Othello*; Corneille's

The Cid; Calderone's *Life Is A Dream*; Moliere's *Bourgeois Gentleman*; Goldsmith's *She Stoops To Conquer*; Sheridan's *The School for Scandal*; Schiller's *Mary Stuart*; Lytton's *Richelieu*; Boucicault's *The Octoroon*; Tolstoi's *Redemption*; Ibsen's *The Doll's House*; Gilbert and Sullivan's *Patience*; Dumas Fils' *Camille*; Rostand's *Cyrano de Bergerac*; Fitch's *Nathan Hale*; Barrie's *Peter Pan*; Maeterlinck's *Blue Bird*; Galsworthy's *Justice*; Pinero's *The Enchanted Cottage*; Shaw's *Back to Methuselah*; Robinson's *The White Headed Boy*; and Maxwell Anderson's *Elizabeth the Queen*.

All information pertaining to the "Great Plays" series should be addressed to: Blevins Davis, "Great Plays" Series, National Broadcasting Company, New York City, N. Y.

RECORDINGS OF POETS' READINGS AVAILABLE FOR CLASSROOM USE

Vachel Lindsay's stirring reading of his famous poem, "The Congo," which so delighted audiences during his lifetime, may now be heard by all who have access to a phonograph. The original recording, made on aluminum discs and long out of print, has, through the enterprise of the National Council of Teachers of English, been transferred to improved durable discs which reproduce clearly the vigorous chanting of America's outstanding troubadour.

The record is one in a Contemporary Poets Series planned by the National Council for use in the classroom and edited by George W. Hibbitt and W. Cabell Greet of Columbia University. Another record which has been issued is the reading by Robert P. Tristram Coffin of three of his best poems, "The Secret Heart," "The Fog," and "Lantern in the Snow." Made with the latest recording equipment, the readings have the double interest of revealing the full beauty of the author's interpretation of his poems and of reproducing the accent and inflection of characteristic Maine speech.

Under the auspices of the English organization, Robert Frost has made four double records of his best-loved poems, including "The Death of the Hired Man," "Mending Wall," and "Two Tramps in Mud Time"; and Gertrude Stein has recorded several of her shorter pieces and selections from "Making of Americans."

A complete list of the available records may be obtained from the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West 68th Street, Chicago.

GEOGRAPHIC NEWS BULLETINS FOR CLASSROOM USE

The National Geographic Society of Washington, D. C., announces that publication of its illustrated Geographic News Bulletins for teachers will be resumed early in October.

These bulletins are issued weekly, five bulletins to the weekly set, for thirty weeks of the school year. They embody pertinent facts for classroom use from the stream of geographic information that pours daily into The Society's headquarters from every part of the world. The bulletins are illustrated from the society's extensive file of geographic photographs.

Teachers are requested to apply early for the number of these bulletins desired. They are obtainable only by teachers, librarians, and college and normal school students. The bulletins are issued as a service, not for financial profit, by the National Geographic Society as a part of its program to diffuse geographic information. They give timely information about boundary changes, exploration, geographic developments, new industries, costumes and customs, and world progress in other lands. Each application should be accompanied by twenty-five cents (50 cents in Canada) to cover the mailing cost of the bulletins for the school year.

Teachers may order bulletins in quantities for class use, to be sent to one address, but 25 cents must be remitted for each subscription.

CITY WIDE HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETIC TROPHIES FOR GIRLS

The two Girls' Branch, Public Schools Athletic League All Round City Trophies for high schools are being awarded for the year 1938 as follows:

CATHARINE S. LEVERICH TROPHY, competed for by high schools with a registration of 2500 girls and over, awarded to Richmond Hill High School.

EGERTON L. WINTHROP TROPHY, competed for by high schools with a registration of 2000 girls and under, awarded to Port Richmond High School.

These trophies are awarded annually to those high schools having the greatest percentage of girls qualifying for All Round Athletic Medals, based on the number of girls on register.

High Schools with a registration of between 2000 and 2500 may choose the class under which they wish to compete.

REVIEWS

PREFACE TO TEACHING

By Henry W. Simon, Ph.D., Oxford University Press, 1938.

In his foreword to Henry W. Simon's *Preface to Teaching*, Abraham Flexner remarks that books on teaching are proverbially dull. With this comment, most teachers will cheerfully agree. The stuffy and cumbersome literary style which educationalists often employ has caused many a teacher to shun pedagogical treatises. Too many professorial writers seem to believe that polysyllables are evidence of profound thought and that abstract terms give freshness and vitality to commonplace observations. Examples drawn from actual classroom practice are so infrequent in pedagogical literature that one suspects that the writers have only a remote acquaintance with current teaching conditions. One critic has labeled this lifeless English "pedigree."

The charge of vague and colorless writing cannot be leveled at *Preface to Teaching*. Professor Si-

mon writes in a chatty and intimate vein much as if here conversing informally with the reader. The result is a readable exposition of the nature of the teaching profession and a helpful discussion of some of the difficulties which the teacher encounters in his everyday classroom experiences.

As the title suggests, the book is addressed to the beginning teacher. In the first half of the volume, entitled "What the Job Is," Professor Simon gives the neophyte some reasons why the teacher cannot reform the world but what, on the other hand, he can do to benefit both society and the individual. A chapter on the characteristics of a good teacher is followed by an engaging discussion of "How Not to be a Schoolmarm." Some advice on planning for professional advancement and on handling parents completes this section.

Professor Simon does not agree with some of his colleagues at

Teachers College who believe that the school should consciously indoctrinate for a new (but undescribed) social order. Such is not the proper function of the school, he holds, and any effort to achieve a social revolution through the instrumentality of the school would be opposed by the rulers and citizenry of the state. Any effort on the part of the school to effect the overthrow of the existing social organization and to substitute another in its place would be a reversal of the usual historical process. The customary sequence of change is first the state, then the school. The school system of totalitarian Sparta, for example, was not developed until more than two centuries after the Spartan government had taken a settled form.

"The very fact that the 'social frontier thinkers,' as our group of professors is called, seldom tell us just what social philosophy should be taught, indicates the weakness of their position. Most of the group seem to hover about socialism—some a little to the right and some a little to the left. Their writings are seldom quite clear on this point. But why don't they tell us just what it is, just what reforms in government and society they want? Certainly it is not because they do not know, because they have not thought it through. Rather, it is because if they really started an effective training in socialism, if they succeeded in making our school-children demand

government ownership of all public utilities and large industries or the abolition of private property, society would quickly step in and stop them. That society would see its fine tool threatening to do other work than it was meant for, and would alter it accordingly. You are in the same position as these eminent professors. If you are out to reform the world, if you are a social revolutionary, do not try to effect your good work through the schools. Be a real revolutionary and organize revolutionary cells or platoons of colored shirts. After you have effected your revolution, then start paying attention to the schools, raising the next generation to think and feel as you do—or at least as you want it to."

If the teacher cannot use the schoolroom to preach his own particular panacea for the troubles of society, what can he legitimately do to help make this world a better place to live in? He can teach his pupils to think effectively, to work coöperatively, to lead courageously, to follow intelligently, and to serve willingly when the common weal requires it. He can, in fine, develop in his pupils those qualities of thought, emotion, and action which will enable them to work out their own solutions to the problems which confront them as individuals and as members of society. "If this sounds too slow and indirect for your temperament," says Professor Simon, "teaching is probably not your job."

In the second half of the book, entitled "How to Do It," the author discusses realistically some of the classroom problems which confront the young teacher. His comments upon such matters as preparing lessons, keeping order, the art of questioning, unity, form, and rhythm in teaching are pithy and practical. One might cavil at the advisability of recommending the beginning teacher to "average no more than eight hours a day of school work throughout the school year." Such an admonition is liable to beget clock-watching and the attitude that teaching is a job rather than a vocation as noble in its own right as medicine or the ministry. When a young teacher begins to worry lest he perform any work over and beyond that which was nominated in the bond, he is fairly on the way to academic stagnation.

Preface to Teaching is a book that might be read with benefit by pupil-teachers and teachers-in-training. Some of us who are more experienced might also find it profitable reading.

FRANCIS GRIFFITH.
James Madison High School.

THE BOOK OF MAJOR SPORTS
Edited by William L. Hughes.
A. S. Barnes & Co., 396 pages,
\$3.00.

For the first time a one volume library has been written for players and coaches of the so-called major sports, football, basketball, baseball,

and track. Dr. William L. Hughes has accomplished a significant piece of work as editor and collaborator. His and his co-authors' wide experience both in coaching and playing America's National sports enables them to bring to their readers a wealth of thoroughly tried techniques.

The thirty-three chapters of this volume are written clearly and tersely. The authors have made an unusual effort to avoid long explanations. Approximately ten questions for discussion and ten true and false test questions conclude each chapter. There are over three hundred accurate and detailed individual drawings of the basic fundamentals of the four sports. These word-pictures have been based on motion picture "action" shots and therefore should prove helpful.

"The coach or player who masters this treatise and who puts its principles into practice should have a basic understanding of the four activities. Then, and only then, is he ready to go beyond its pages for the novel and the experimental."

Sport enthusiasts will enjoy and profit by a perusal of this truly unique volume.

M. DONALD ADOLPH.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

PULPWOOD EDITOR
By Harold Hersey, Stokes and Company, \$3.00.

This book ought to be required reading for every high school

teacher of English in the country. In its informal and racy fashion, it tells more about the adolescent's reading interests than most of the learned surveys we have had; and it does it much more convincingly. Mr. Hersey, who has edited some eighty-odd pulp magazines in the last twenty-five years, has here given us some invaluable insight into the leisure-time reading of a vast segment of our adolescent population. Mr. Hersey admits that the juvenile element (6-60, he insists) constitutes the largest bulk of pulp readers. And it is to the feeding of this insatiable mob that Mr. Hersey and his colleagues have not too solemnly dedicated themselves. That they flourish like the proverbial green bay tree is eloquent testimony to their shrewdness in sizing up their audiences, and infallibly catering to their desires.

What are pulp readers like? Mr. Hersey submits a graphic and rather distressing profile: office and factory workers, few educated beyond elementary level, distinctly juvenile in outlook, unimaginative, unintelligent, uncultured, but curiously definite and dogmatic about what they want to read. And Mr. Hersey's success has been based on his uncanny gauging and satisfaction of these desires.

Teachers of remedial reading have long suspected what Mr. Hersey so pointedly reveals, but little, as yet, has been done to lift the reading level of the underprivi-

leged who comprise the majority of pulp addicts. Much has been achieved in the way of breaking down poor ocular habits, rehabilitating morale, increasing rate and comprehension, and so forth. But the fundamental problem raised by the analyses in Mr. Hersey's discursive narrative remains untouched, and will probably remain so until teachers become aware of the workings of the pulp-mind and the ways in which it is manipulated and regimented by clever practitioners like Mr. Hersey.

Mr. Hersey never intended his book for teachers. This much is obvious. But what he says has more pith and point for teachers of literature than most of the sallow stuff that clutters up methods courses and texts. Here is the "low-down" from one who knows, from one who sells it, from one who doesn't eat tomorrow unless he knows what his readers want and gives it to them.

Mr. Hersey's breezy advice may produce a generation of more effective pulp-writers. It ought, also, to produce a generation of more effective teachers. It is difficult to see how one can teach literature these days without a vivid recognition of the part the pulps play in the lives of our students, and why their hold is so tenacious and so hard to break. Mr. Hersey, without intending it at all, has written a most revealing text for the teacher of English.

A. H. LASS.

INTEGRATION: ITS MEANING AND IMPLICATION

By L. Thomas Hopkins and others. D. Appleton-Century, \$2.00.

This is a timely book, coming as it does when the academic air is thick with much half-baked, uninformed discussion of "correlation," "integration," "fusion," "syntheses," "core-curricula," and so forth. This study under the auspices of the Society for Curriculum Study sheds a rather cold but comforting light. It clarifies and defines integration, pointing to the integrative behavior of the individual, and citing philosophic, biological, and psychological evidence for integration. In these lights, it critically examines the comparatively new experience, correlated, broad-field, and core-curricula.

For those who seek an understanding of the basic proposals and implications of integration, this text is a worthwhile investment. It offers sane and balanced guidance in a very much befogged area. Integration is upon us already in many more forms than we know. Without the intelligent appraisal offered by Dr. Hopkins and his co-workers, we may make fools and faddists of ourselves again, as we have done so often in the past. The arguments for integration are unanswerable. But that does not mean that the multifarious schemes spawned by fond enthusiasts are necessarily sound. A perusal of the extended analyses here offered reveals a gaping breach between the-

ory and practice. Bridging this gap successfully will be the work of the next decade. Cool and steady minds like that of Dr. Hopkins will be needed to restrain the headstrong and morbid neophiles from coming to market with their ideas in the green ear. Dr. Hopkins has done an excellent and much-needed job in placing before the profession so clear and so well-reasoned an examination of what is perhaps the most-discussed and most significant educational movement of the last decade.

A. H. L.

A DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH SYNONYMS

By Richard Soule. New Edition Revised and Enlarged by Alfred D. Scheffield. Little Brown, \$3.50.

There is not much to be said about this new edition of Soule's classic work. It has now been brought up to date by one eminently fitted by temperament and experience for the task. Synonyms have been grouped to make fine shades of meaning clear. Mr. Scheffield writes an excellent foreword on the technique involved in selecting the right word. Soule in this new format is an invaluable desk book for writers and teachers.

A. H. L.

THE AMERICAN LEGION AS EDUCATOR

By William Gellerman, Teachers College, Columbia University, \$3.15.

This is the book that had the

American Legion, the recent N. E. A. convention, and the American press, standing on their heads not so very long ago. At this writing, it still makes good reading. Certainly, there is none of the wild-eyed, irresponsible sensation-monger about Dr. Gellerman, as you might have gathered from the fulminations of some of the Legionnaires and others whose oxen had been so painfully gored by this study. Dr. Gellerman's work is marked by an eminent sobriety, sanity, and scrupulous hewing to the facts as they appear spread in documentary form by the Legion itself. Himself a member of the Legion, Dr. Gellerman can hardly be charged with being a rank and uninformed outsider. The obvious lengths to which he has gone to document his charges against the Legion leave little doubt concerning his honesty and integrity. The violent denigrations heaped upon the author by those who have felt his lash most keenly have not as yet succeeded in shaking the basic facts adduced.

That these facts are none too palatable in some quarters is obvious. For Dr. Gellerman charges, in brief, that the American Legion, as constituted at present, is distinctly and menacingly pro-fascist. It is a powerful pressure group, dominated from above by a few forceful individuals who are bent on mobilizing national sentiment in favor of their own special interests, which lie in the maintenance and perpetuation of the status quo. The Legion's

vocal policy is not representative of the inarticulate rank and file, Dr. Gellerman contends. It is not the cross-section of America it pretends to be. The preservation of peace and the inculcation of the patriotic attitude are merely convenient masks behind which the true purposes of the Legion are clearly perceptible.

Dr. Gellerman draws a detailed and rather sinister picture of the Legion's many insidious activities in the name of peace and patriotism, pointing out the extent to which the Legion has cowed and dominated not only isolated school systems, but even so large and influential an organization as the N. E. A. Through the use of such institutions and occasions as American Education Week, Essay Contests, Flag Education, Patriotic Holiday Observances, Constitution Day Observances, and so forth, Dr. Gellerman points out how the Legion subtly and deftly has permeated our school systems with its own particular brand of Americanism.

The educational program of the Legion, as analyzed by Dr. Gellerman, is essentially militaristic. It discredits as radical and subversive all movements for social change. It is passionately dedicated to preserving the status quo, and to heightening popular emotions concerning the symbols of these institutions.

There is only one thing for teachers to do, says Dr. Gellerman. They must take sides, unite, and fight against the distinctly and paradoxically un-American tendencies rep-

resented by the Legion and similar tendencies in our national life.

This is a definitely perturbing book. For in it, Dr. Gellerman has outlined with painful clarity what he feels to be a menace, the extent and proportions of which complacent and befuddled educators have neither recognized nor dealt with at all adequately. It is good to have it brought out into the open. It is even more important now that some of the facts are at hand, and as yet not successfully controverted by the mouthpieces of the Legion, that teachers familiarize themselves with them. Certainly, every Legionnaire is not necessarily tarred by the stick Dr. Gellerman so lustily applies. But an answer should be forthcoming soon. And it should be as sedulously restrained and as carefully documented as Dr. Gellerman's study. Teachers have an important stake in this controversy. They cannot afford to remain ignorant of its fundamental nature and implications.

A. H. L.

METHODOLOGY OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

By C. V. Good, A. S. Barr, and D. E. Scates. Appleton-Century, \$3.75.

This is certainly one of the most exhaustive and detailed texts of its kind. Both amateur and professional researchers will profit from the excellent organization and lucid exposition of the authors. There is

everything here to prevent those doing educational research from falling into some of the inexcusably egregious errors that occasionally mar even the most honestly intentioned work. What the authors have to say on the various techniques of educational research and their peculiar weaknesses and strong points bears careful reading. The discussion of the nature of scientific thinking and its application to educational problems is particularly illuminating. Most studies suffer from inaccurate or inept analysis and interpretation of data. Here the cautions thrown out by the authors are of special significance. Application of the principles laid down would do much to remove the taint of shoddiness and meretriciousness which, unfortunately, so often characterizes educational research.

This book serves one really fine purpose. It demonstrates the fundamental honesty and integrity that animates present day educational research and serves as something of a rebuke to those who pervert its purposes. We are a little disappointed, however, in this imposing work. Nowhere do we find any criticism of the piddling nature of so much of contemporary research in education. Nowhere do the authors come to grips with the rather serious problem of making research more meaningful, more important. Of course, their basic aim has been to develop scrupulous efficiency and scientific infallibility among researchers. Here their guidance is

beyond criticism. And perhaps we have no right to ask for more. But somehow, we feel, that the authors would have added immeasurably to their stature had they pointed emphatically to the need for harnessing educational research to what is of moment. As it is, by indirection, they encourage the deplorable tendency towards the narrowness, specialization, and unreality so marked a feature of educational research. Better techniques, more skilful application of safeguards, yes! But also more vision, more vivid awareness of the purposes that research is to serve. It is not mere fact-finding that is important. The kind of facts sought are equally vital, and perhaps even more vital.

The volume contains a stimulating appendix composed of remarks of national experts in various fields indicating the needed research in these specific areas.

A. H. L.

A LIST OF SPELLING DIFFICULTIES IN 3876 WORDS

By Arthur I. Gates, Teachers College, Columbia, \$2.10.

This is a highly useful study and fills a long felt want. The words here listed are analyzed for specific and special difficulties they present to pupils. The "hard-spot" is noted, the frequency of its occurrence, the grade level of comprehension, and most common spellings indicated.

This study serves a double purpose; aiding the teacher in anticipating errors and providing specific frontal attack on the crucial as-

pects of the difficult words. Unfortunately, Dr. Gates' data is drawn almost exclusively from the elementary level. A large number of the "demons" here set down no longer haunt any substantial number of the upper classes in the high school. But for the junior high school and the early terms of the senior high school, these results have much value.

This is reputable and important research. Such work does much to restore one's faith in educational research.

A. H. L.

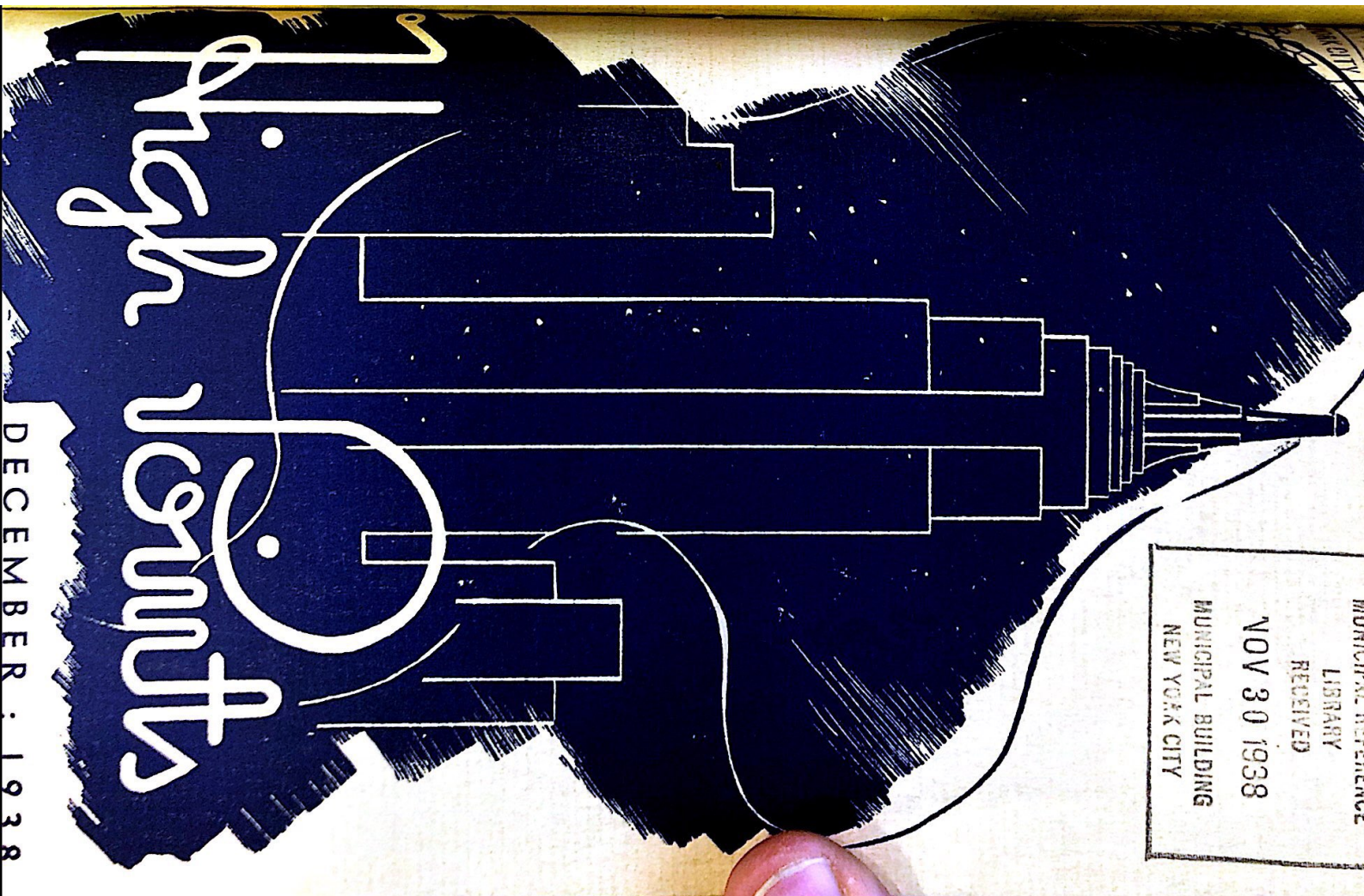
LITERARY CHARACTERS DRAWN FROM LIFE

By Earle Walbridge, H. W. Wilson Co.

This is a really fascinating bit of work and one that no teacher of English will want to be without. A compilation like this has not yet, to our knowledge, been attempted with such thoroughness and skill. Mr. Walbridge lists some of the most famous "Romans à Clef" and "Drames à Clef" indicating the real-life counterpart of these interesting literary characters. The volume also contains a list of "Half-told Tales" or unfinished novels by some very prominent authors.

The book has some very attractive possibilities as motivation for the teaching of literature. But even if you cannot make it serve any such utilitarian purpose (certainly Mr. Walbridge never intended any) you will still find it exciting entertainment.

A. H. L.



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PROBLEMS OF GROUP REMEDIAL READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL¹

PREFATORY NOTE

For the past four years, the Works Progress Administration has been coöperating with the Board of Education in the conduct of a remedial reading program in about twenty New York City high schools. Influenced to a large extent by the excellent results obtained on this project, in February, 1938, Associate Superintendent Frederic Ernst and Assistant Superintendent David H. Moskowitz took steps towards incorporating remedial reading procedures into the regular high school course of study. In accordance with the plan of action which they proposed, the various high schools have been organizing into special English classes those entering pupils found to possess a reading status considerably below the ninth year.

Early last September, at a conference of the W. P. A. remedial reading workers held at the Julia Richman High School, Dr. Arthur E. Traxler, author of the Traxler reading Test, and prominent research worker in the field of reading, delivered an address on the problems of group remedial reading in the Secondary School. His talk applies so immediately to the work

of the special English classes organized for entering low-ability readers in our own high schools that the thought occurred to bring it to the attention of all teachers concerned by reproducing it in HIGH POINTS. The following article is an abridgement of Dr. Traxler's original address.

WILL SCARLET.

Technical Supervisor
High School Remedial Program.

REASONS FOR REMEDIAL READING PROGRAMS

The extensive remedial reading project which is being conducted in the New York City high schools finds its counterpart, on a smaller scale, in countless high schools all over America. Within the last five years, it seems that nearly every high school in this country has become concerned over the ineffective reading of a large proportion of its pupils and has either considered or tried out ways and means of doing something about the situation.

¹ A paper presented at a Symposium of the New York City Remedial Teaching Project held at the Julia Richman High School, September 6, 1938.

There are several reasons for the present intense interest in remedial reading at the high school level. One of these is the increased emphasis on *extensive* reading in certain subjects, particularly those in the social sciences and natural sciences. Unless the students can read efficiently, it is impossible for them to cover the assignments. Another reason is the retention in school of many pupils who have neither language facility nor interest in the language arts and who are naturally inclined to drop out of school and enter industry, but who remain in school because industry doesn't want them and because of compulsory attendance laws. This group of pupils furnishes a large percentage of the remedial reading cases. A third reason for emphasis on remedial reading has been the development and wide use of standardized reading tests, the results of which have shown that in almost any class the most able readers are from six to ten times as efficient as the poorest ones. Another influence making for the development of remedial reading programs in the secondary school has emanated from the experimental work in reading that has been carried on during the last fifteen years in various clinics and laboratory schools. These studies have shown that remedial reading is feasible and they have developed technics, some of which may be transferred to the classroom. Still another reason for the promo-

tion of remedial reading for the retarded youth of this country has been the realization that if our democracy is to endure in a world that is bewildered by divergent political, economic, and sociological theory, it is highly important that the whole population be able not merely to read and assimilate at a low level, but also to read thoughtfully and critically and to weigh the evidence that is presented to them.

The last point is ample justification for a program of remedial reading throughout the secondary schools of America, but it should be observed that if the need at this point is met, teachers of remedial reading will not be satisfied with the mere mechanical aspects of the reading process which so often engage the greater share of attention in contemporary programs of this kind. They will recognize that, while several other aspects are important in a remedial reading program, the most significant phase of the work is the provision of the concepts needed in each field and the training of the students in the use of these concepts in thinking.

It is true, of course, that training in the tools and methods of thinking represents an advanced stage of remedial reading and that this stage is necessarily preceded by a number of other steps. Let us note what some of these are.

STEPS IN A GROUP REMEDIAL READING PROGRAM

Statement of objectives.—As a rule, the first step involves a clear statement of the purposes of the remedial work. It is not possible to set up a blanket set of objectives that can be adopted in all remedial reading programs at the secondary school level, for the objectives are partly dependent on the needs of the individuals and the resources of the project. However, any comprehensive list of objectives will probably include the following as a minimum:

1. The perfection of fundamental reading habits—regular eye-movements, few regressions, accurate return sweeps, reduced vocalization, and so forth.
2. The promotion of permanent interests in and habits of independent reading.
3. The development of skills in work-type reading—adapting rate to content, getting central thought, following directions, and a variety of other skills.
4. The fostering of desirable reading attitudes—for example, an attitude of preference for the worthwhile and enduring as contrasted with the cheap and trashy; and attitude of reserving judgment when reading controversial material.
5. The deepening of appreciation for literary, scientific, and other types of writing.
6. Acquaintance with and facility in library skills.

7. The widening of the conceptual background of the pupils—building up *meaningful* vocabulary.
8. The improvement of the methods of thinking employed by the pupils while reading and the formation of habits of thoughtful, critical, analytical reading.

Selection of pupils for reading groups.—The second step in a remedial reading project is the identification and selection of the poor readers in the group. The main tool at this stage is a reading test or battery of tests. Imperfect though they are for diagnosis, present high school reading tests are fairly satisfactory for survey purposes and they will indicate with considerable accuracy the gross reading deficiencies of the pupils.

It is desirable to include in the remedial group as large a percentage as possible of the pupils who are below the median of the grade. The lowest fourth of each class is sometimes included, although large public school systems can seldom provide remedial help for so large a group. In a school system the size of the New York City schools, local percentiles on reading tests are probably more significant than reading ages or grades, as determined by the authors of the tests, for the local groups will probably be larger and more stable than the ones used by the authors in setting up their norms.

Greater gains on the average

may be anticipated if pupils whose reading percentiles are considerably lower than their intelligence percentiles are assigned to the reading groups. However, some pupils whose intelligence percentiles as well as reading percentiles are very low will show marked improvement in reading under proper guidance. This is probably explained in part by the fact that scores on most group intelligence tests include a large reading factor, and consequently, some pupils make low intelligence scores because of ineffective reading rather than poor mental ability.

In the selection of the reading groups, the results of tests should be supplemented by teachers' reports and interviews with teachers, pupils, and parents.

Diagnosis—The third step is the diagnosis of the difficulties of the pupils who are chosen for the remedial group. Reading disability cases usually reveal more than one handicap and the numerous and different combinations of handicaps that are possible make diagnosis very difficult.

In connection with this step, the remedial teacher can well prepare a brief case history for each pupil in the group. The case history should include a summary of all available information about the pupil, for the causes of retardation in reading are sometimes far removed from the reading situation itself. If the school system maintains an adequate system of cumu-

lative records, these records will constitute case histories, and the summaries made by the remedial teacher may be taken in large part from them.

Even the best cumulative record will not contain all the data needed about reading cases and it is desirable to supplement this record with a variety of information collected at the beginning of the reading project. A few silent reading tests are somewhat diagnostic and a study of the scores on these tests is of some value in identifying the nature of reading difficulties. However, since nearly all reading tests are designed for use within a single class period, the parts are so short that the reliability of the part scores tends to be too low for the diagnosis of individual difficulties. Moreover, in the light of the broad conception of reading now in vogue, existing reading tests for the high school fall far short of measuring more than a fraction of the important abilities involved. Teachers of reading may supplement standardized tests with informal testing materials of their own construction which are designed to measure certain objectives not measured satisfactorily by standardized tests. It appears that a very significant contribution could be made by the Remedial Teaching Project through the construction and standardization of a diagnostic reading test using content specially prepared or selected with a view to

its suitability for New York City high school students. [The construction of such a test is now being undertaken by the High School Remedial Project. — Ed. Note.]

As one would naturally suppose, there is general agreement that diagnosis should include an inquiry into the physiological equipment of the pupils for reading. This is true notwithstanding the fact that research studies have in general failed to reveal clear-cut evidence of high relationship between physical handicaps and reading disabilities, especially in the secondary school and college. Some studies indicate that even visual handicaps have low correlation with reading achievement as shown by standardized tests.¹ Nevertheless, it is the consensus of opinion that it is highly desirable to examine at least vision and hearing of each remedial pupil, both as a conservative measure and as a means of discovering conditions which may give rise to discomfort, nervous tensions, and feelings of inadequacy in reading situations. Remedial teachers are qualified to give simple tests of vision and hearing and they may, with a little training, learn to use the Betts telebinocular for making a more thorough study of eye-muscle imbal-

¹ Donald E. Swanson and Joseph Tiffin, "Betts Physiological Approach to the Analysis of Reading Disabilities as Applied to the College Level," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (February, 1936), 433-38.

ance and other visual anomalies, even though they are not equipped to investigate some of the more obscure visual difficulties.

A thorough diagnosis of reading ability will also include an inquiry into personality factors. A few of the more promising personality inventories, as the Bernreuter and the Bell inventories, may have some value in connection with this aspect of the diagnosis, but anecdotal records, behavior descriptions, and ratings assigned by teachers who know the pupils well are, at present, more dependable than the results of any existing tests of personality. In studying the relation of reading difficulties to personality, the remedial teacher should guard against confusing cause with effect. Pupils who reach high school without being able to read will very probably have personality problems. Reading is such an important mode of adjustment to modern environment that a pupil denied this type of adjustment cannot have a thoroughly normal life. Care should be used not to label personality aberrations which result from reading retardation as causes of difficulty.

Scores on an intelligence test constitute one of the indispensable tools in reading diagnosis. It is preferable to use an individual test such as the most recent revision of the Stanford-Binet test, because of the fact that reading ability plays a smaller part in indi-

vidual intelligence tests than it does in most group tests. However, in a remedial program of the proportions of the New York City project, it is probably not feasible to administer an individual test to every pupil. In choosing group intelligence tests, one should try to select tests that are either wholly or in part free from the influence of reading. Two new mental tests that yield scores for certain non-language factors, as well as language factors, are the California Test of Mental Maturity and the Thurstone Primary Abilities Tests. Both tests should be of special interest to teachers of remedial reading at the secondary school level.

Another helpful diagnostic device is an oral reading test. Although fluent oral reading is not one of the most important objectives of a remedial reading program, oral reading is probably second to no other procedure in studying the handicaps of retarded readers. By having a pupil read even a single page of printed matter aloud, by keeping an analytical record of his errors, and by questioning him informally about meaning after he has finished, one can obtain a wealth of data on his reading weaknesses. It is unfortunate that there are almost no standardized oral reading tests for the high school. However, the Gray Oral Reading Paragraphs, designed for the elementary school, can be utilized with retarded readers in high school, and suitable

informal oral tests may be made by selecting typical passages from textbooks and by applying the technique of the Gray test to recording the errors of the pupils. This is an excellent procedure for discovering whether or not the textbooks used by the pupils are too hard for them.

In any thorough program of diagnosis in connection with a remedial reading project, a question will inevitably arise concerning the extent to which handedness, reversals, and lateral dominance should be taken into consideration. One theory of reading that has been widely publicized in recent years is that in normal reading unilateral brain dominance is established, and that reading difficulties, particularly reversals, arise when lateral dominance is not established. Because of the relationship between the brain centers which control manual dexterity and those which control reading, left-handed and ambidextrous pupils are, according to this theory, especially susceptible to confusion in learning to read.

Several studies of handedness, dominance, and reversal errors have been made recently. The results of the studies are somewhat conflicting and additional investigation is needed, but the sum total of the evidence to date suggests that handedness, reversals, and the theory of unilateral dominance are of minor importance in a program of remedial reading at the high

school level. In other words, research has thus far failed to provide consistent support for the theory of dominance or consistent evidence that there is greater incidence of reading disability among left-handed and ambidextrous subjects than among those who are right-handed.

Notwithstanding this conclusion, a record of handedness should be a part of the case history of every remedial pupil, if for no other reason than to supplement the personality data. A left-handed child in a right-handed world is frequently exposed to tensions and handicaps not experienced by most of his classmates.

Another question which is pertinent to the diagnostic aspect of remedial reading is concerned with the extent to which certain mechanical devices, as the ophthalmograph and metron-o-scope, may be employed. This problem will be commented on later.

When the reading teacher has assembled and organized all the evidence collected from cumulative records, personality instruments, questionnaires, physiological observations, silent reading tests, oral reading tests, and intelligence tests, he will be able to state the nature of the reading difficulties with considerable definiteness, to suggest causes, and to outline a tentative program of remedial teaching for each pupil in the group.

Organization of instructional groups. The next step is the organ-

ization for purposes of instruction. Since individual instruction is seldom feasible in a public high school because of the large number of cases involved, it is customary to set up instructional groups and to individualize the teaching of the pupils as far as feasible under group organization. Two general types of group organization have been employed: (1) the formation of regular classes in which part or all the time is devoted to remedial reading and (2) the setting up of small groups of pupils with similar difficulties for instruction at free periods.

Various plans have been followed in instructing the regularly scheduled classes. The following are some of the plans that have been employed: (1) a short, intensive period of instruction, using perhaps six weeks during the school year; (2) the alternating of periods of reading and regular subject matter, offering a first reading unit, then a unit of a regular course, then another reading unit, and so forth; (3) the continuous teaching of reading one period a day throughout an entire semester, or even a whole year; and (4) utilization of the content of the regular course as the basis of the remedial reading. The first plan— an intensive period of instruction—causes less loss in the regular work of the course, but the difficulty is that the reading instruction may not be conducted long enough for new reading habits to

become fixed. The second plan—alternating units—makes it possible to distribute the reading throughout the whole year and thus to build up well-established reading habits, but it is probably more difficult to maintain interest in the remedial work than it is when the reading instruction is continuous. The third plan—continuous reading instruction—is best from the standpoint of growth in reading, but if an entire year is given to remedial reading, either special provision must be made for the subject which the reading replaces or the pupils must lose a unit of regular high school work. This can be justified only because of the extreme importance of reading in all the work of the school. The fourth plan—utilization of the regular course content for remedial instruction—is fine in theory, but in practice, it is extremely difficult for even the most skilful teacher to combine the objectives of the subject-matter course and the objectives of remedial reading in such a way that both sets of objectives are met.

The two main advantages of organizing small groups for remedial work at free periods are that pupils with similar difficulties can readily be scheduled for the same groups and that greater individualization of instruction is possible than in groups of regular class size. The disadvantages are that the meetings of the groups must ordinarily be less frequent than

the meetings of regularly scheduled classes and that it is more difficult to secure favorable attitudes toward remedial reading when it is a special requirement than when it is in the regular school day. Furthermore, remedial reading pupils usually need more rather than less study time than other pupils, and the special reading classes tend to take time that they need to use in studying content subjects.

Experiments have shown that improvement in reading can be secured with all the plans of organization mentioned. There is need for further study to determine which plan of organization is best. It may be that the desirability of the type of organization is dependent in part on the ability level of the pupils. A controlled experiment to compare different kinds of organization for group remedial instruction would constitute a valuable contribution to the research literature on reading at the high-school level.

Regardless of the type of group organization employed, remedial reading in the secondary school is usually considered the special responsibility of the English department. This is quite natural, for many of the procedures employed in remedial reading are similar to methods with which English teachers are already familiar, and, therefore, teachers in the English department can ordinarily learn to do this type of remedial work more readily

than can teachers in other departments. It is, however, highly important for all teachers to realize that they can contribute to the solution of the reading problem, and it is encouraging to note that there is a growing tendency to regard remedial reading as an all-school function.

The remedial training. — The next and most important step in a reading project is the provision of remedial instruction. In this connection, the first problem is concerned with the types of instruction to be given. In general, the nature of the instruction will be determined by the objectives that have been formulated for the work. Assuming that the objectives mentioned earlier in this paper will be included in the list of objectives set up for the remedial work, one may identify at least the following types of reading activities:

1. Free reading following lines of interest, with a minimum of supervision.
2. Carefully planned exercises aimed at reducing vocalization, head movement, and other hindrances to smooth, rapid reading, and at building up mature habits of eye-movement.
3. Training in basic skills of work-type reading, as identifying the central thought and supporting details, finding facts, skimming, understanding the author's purpose, getting a bird's-eye view of the whole selection, and using study helps in books and libraries.

4. Reading controversial material and discussing it critically.
5. Oral reading and discussion of literary and other selections with emphasis on the conveying of appreciation of the selections to others in the group.
6. Instruction in both general and technical vocabulary in order to build up a wide conceptual background.
7. Practice in improving methods of thinking while reading—for example, reading to answer thought questions, reading to discover implied as well as explicit meanings, reading and applying the content of the selections to new situations, reading for purposes of solving problems, and formal exercises in thoughtful reading, such as the syllogism.

The kinds of reading materials to be used constitute a problem that is closely related to types of instruction. A few years ago, not one high school remedial reading textbook was available, but a great deal of work has been done in this field recently. There are now at least ten remedial textbooks or workbooks that are suitable for high school use.¹ It would be

¹ Bessey and Coffin, *Reading for Understanding*; Broening, Law, Wilkinson, and Ziegler, *Reading for Skill*; Hovious, *Following Printed Trails*; Knight and Traxler, *Read and Comprehend*; McCall, Cook, and Norvell, *Experiments in Reading*; Mack, McCall, and Almack, *Roads to Reading*; Roberts and Rand, *Let's Read*; Salisbury, *Better Work Habits*; Strang, *Study Type of Reading Exercises*; and Wilkinson and Brown, *Improving your Reading*.

possible to set up a valuable course in remedial reading based entirely upon these materials. However, it appears that a better program of remedial reading can be formulated if one does not depend entirely, or even mainly, upon remedial reading texts. Frequently, one will wish to get across a reading skill that is not met adequately by any textbook in the field and will find it advisable to prepare or select his own materials and to mimeograph them for use with the group. It has been noted with much interest that in the report on last year's remedial project in the New York City high schools some excellent illustrations of materials prepared by the remedial teachers were included. One of the most practical contributions that this project can make is to prepare, try out carefully, and validate materials of that kind.

A question naturally arises in connection with remedial instruction concerning the extent to which an attempt should be made to transfer the techniques of the laboratory and the clinic to the classroom. The value of the eye-movement camera as a research instrument in the laboratory has been demonstrated again and again. Certain instruments have recently been produced on a commercial basis by means of which procedures of diagnosis and instruction that formerly were confined mainly to the laboratory have been made available to remedial teachers generally.

The most noteworthy of these instruments are the ophthalm-o-graph and the metron-o-scope.

The ophthalm-o-graph, a portable eye-movement camera, does not entirely meet the requirements of a precise research instrument, for it does not obtain a record of head movement or an exact record of duration of fixations, but it meets practical needs fairly well, since it shows number of fixations and furnishes a record of the movement of both eyes. In the hands of an expert in a reading clinic, the value of the ophthalm-o-graph as a diagnostic instrument is unquestioned. When it is used by the average remedial teacher, however, one may well question whether a great deal of information is obtained that is not shown by a good battery of reading tests.

Notwithstanding the limitations involved in the study of eye-movements by any but skilled diagnosticians, eye-movement records are sometimes helpful in a classroom remedial program, if they do not lead to overemphasis on mechanics. The history of the development of the photographic technique in the study of reading problems is a saga of scientific achievement, and one must have the greatest respect for the fine work of those who have contributed to this method of analyzing reading habits. However, it appears that as a result of the centering of attention on eye-movements, not only in diagnosis but in instruction as well, a pseudo-psychology of reading and false method of remedial teaching have grown up in many places. The mechanical aspects of the reading process deserve some attention, it is true, but precision of eye-movements and perfection of reading habits are of little value unless the emphasis is on concepts, meanings, and understanding.

The metron-o-scope, a kind of triple-action, synchronized tachistoscope, is being used in laboratories, reading clinics, and classrooms, both as a diagnostic instrument and a training device. It is probably used more extensively in remedial teaching than in diagnosis. The basic idea behind both the tachistoscope and the metron-o-scope—that of the flash-card exercise—has been employed by remedial teachers for years. The main contribution of the metron-o-scope is that it provides for pacing the eye-movements in continuous reading, and thus promotes regularity of eye-movement and tends to increase recognition span, although the reading situation it sets up deviates in several respects from a normal one.

Studies have shown that students make significant gains in scores on reading tests when trained with the metron-o-scope by experienced teachers. But studies have also shown that large gains are achieved when the remedial work is conducted without the aid of this device. The superiority of the metron-o-scope method to other

methods employed in group remedial reading has not yet been proved. Extensive controlled experiments must be carried on before recommendations concerning the use of this instrument in the remedial classroom can be made from research data. Some persons favor a motion-picture adaptation of the metron-o-scope technique, which has been described in detail by Dearborn and Anderson,¹ but the value of this device likewise needs further study.

In general, it may be said that it is defensible to employ the various new mechanical aids in a group remedial project on an experimental basis, if not as a part of a regular service program. In fact, it is highly desirable that this be done, for more experimental data on all the mechanical devices are much needed. Needless to say, if the use of various devices for improving the mechanics of reading proves to be practicable on a service basis, it will be imperative that they be employed only in conjunction with and supplementary to a vigorous program for building up comprehension at ever higher levels of difficulty.

The question of the relative importance of the various objectives is one that is encountered again and again in a program of remedial

¹Walter F. Dearborn and Irving H. Anderson, "A New Method for Teaching Phrasing and for Increasing the Size of Reading Fixations," *Psychological Record*, 1 (December, 1937), 459-475.

dial reading. The appraisal of purposes is necessarily subjective, and the opinions of remedial teachers concerning which purposes are most important will naturally differ. As already indicated, many persons feel that the development of permanent reading interests, desirable reading attitudes, a rich background of reading concepts, and habits of thoughtful reading are far more important at the secondary school level than the mechanical aspects of the process.

It is noteworthy that the yearbook entitled *The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report*,¹ probably the most important reading publication of this decade, urges a definition of reading that assumes that the reader should not only master the mechanics of reading and grasp the essential ideas and facts presented, but should also reflect on their significance, evaluate them critically, and discover relations between them. The Yearbook Committee holds that any conception of reading is inadequate that fails to include reflection, critical evaluation, and clarification of meaning.

If concepts, meanings, and thinking are emphasized as objectives of a remedial program, it becomes apparent that all learning is either training in reading or preparation

¹ *The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report*, p. 25. National Society for the Study of Education, Thirty-sixth Yearbook, Part I. Bloomington, Illinois. Public School Publishing Company, 1937.

for reading through providing background of experience. From this viewpoint, all teachers, in fact, all persons who have anything to do with the training of young people, are teachers of reading, even though they never open a book with the pupils. They should be brought to a recognition of this fact and to the need for close coöperation with those mainly responsible for the remedial program, in order that the whole faculty may consciously and efficiently perform a function that perforce they will perform anyway. Regardless of what department is mainly responsible for the remedial project, the remedial teachers will necessarily depend on the teachers in the different content fields for assistance in such matters as the teaching of the technical vocabulary of the various subjects, for only specialists in each field are fully qualified to give instruction of this kind.

Evaluation of Progress. — The final step in a group remedial project is the evaluation of growth made during the period of training. The types of evidence most frequently employed are (1) reading test scores; (2) eye-movement records; (3) graphs of scores on standardized test lessons employed throughout the training period; (4) teachers reports concerning reading habits; (5) profiles of application during study; and (6) marks made in content subjects. More dependence is usually placed

upon test scores than upon any of the other types of evidence.

The main purposes in making an objective study of growth during remedial work are to discover the pupils who have reached a satisfactory standard of reading achievement and to evaluate the effectiveness of the remedial teaching so far as the whole group is concerned. Before valid conclusions about either groups or individuals can be drawn, the pupils must be re-examined the following year to discover whether or not they have retained their gains. Although the need for this step is obvious, the great majority of studies reported in the literature on reading have not included it. The test results secured with the remedial pupils should, of course, be compared with the results of tests administered to control pupils who are similar in ability but who have not had the remedial training.

CONCLUSION

There is at the present time an urgent need to remove the mystery and the sentiment from remedial reading. Some radical reading cases experience such exceptional difficulties that they must be referred to a reading clinic and a few are so abnormal emotionally that they need the attention of a psychiatrist, but by far the largest number of retarded readers evince difficulties that are similar to those experienced by normal readers, but

are simply more severe. Overwhelming evidence has been accumulated within the last dozen years to show that the problems of remedial reading will yield to skilful classroom teaching. There will always be a need for the expert methods employed by some reading specialists in intensive remedial teaching, but at least ninety per cent of the burden of remedial teaching in the secondary schools of America must be borne by members of the regular teaching staff, working under conditions similar to those of the classroom.

The remedial project in New York City is performing a most important service, not only to the school children of this city, but to all who are interested in this work, by showing how remedial problems may be attacked on a large-scale basis with a staff most of whom were not, previous to the beginning of the project, highly trained in the technical aspects of remedial reading. This is exactly the situation in which nearly every secondary school in the country finds itself. It is to be hoped that as the project develops, the remedial staff will keep in mind the need for devising improved means of evaluating growth in reading and for developing a reservoir of remedial materials that will prove interesting and stimulating for the thousands of adolescents who are young men and young women in interests but are still elementary-school children in

language facility. Finally, one hopes that the staff will remember that maturity of reading is essentially maturity of thinking, and that every time a child is given a new concept—one that is really his—and every time he is enabled to

see a new relationship between ideas—one that he truly apprehends—he has been brought a little distance along the road toward independent and efficient use of man's most important tool.

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REMEDIAL READING IN THE NEW YORK CITY HIGH SCHOOLS

I believe it superfluous to describe in great detail the reading situation which prevails today in a great many junior and senior high schools all over the country. Everyone is aware of the fact that the character of the population attending secondary schools today is considerably altered from what it was in the early 20's. Depressed economic conditions have had the effect of prolonging the period of schooling for tens of thousands of young boys and girls who would normally be absorbed by occupational industry. It is no longer news to hear that twenty to thirty-five percent of the high school freshmen in the average city are two and three years retarded in reading. What is news is that, six months ago, the largest city school system in the nation introduced remedial reading into its regular high school English course. What is news is that the same school system has, for the past three years, been engaged

in an undertaking that is bound to have a salutary influence upon secondary education in all parts of the country. I refer to the work of a committee of department heads which is constructing a special curriculum intended for the non-academic-minded pupil and based upon such contemporary experiences as are truly meaningful to the adolescent.

In these two ways New York City is attempting to solve its problem of reading liability. Proper credit for New York's embarkation upon a program of remedial reading should be given to one of the agencies functioning under the aegis of the federal government. Since 1935 the Works Progress Administration, in a joint effort with the Board of Education, has been trying to solve the problem of reading casualties. It has placed at the disposal of the Board of

Address Delivered Before Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, Monday, June 27, 1938, at the American Museum of Natural History.

Education the services of several hundred college graduates, who have been assigned to the high school division to render remedial and preventive instruction to inefficient readers. The remarkable progress which thousands of low-ability readers have been able to make as a result of the highly individualized techniques of instruction employed by these remedial workers has had numerous effects. By virtue of the fact that large numbers of pupils are involved, the work of the remedial project has given substantiation and greater validity to many of the findings made in the last decade by research workers in the field of reading. It has brought home, to outside authorities as well as local, the gravity of the reading problem. It has caused the educational spotlight to be shifted, temporarily perhaps, from the bright, and potentially creative pupil to the handicapped one who, because the door to business opportunity is so firmly shut, is forced to remain in school. It has served to convince educators not only of the fact that these pupils cannot be expected to maintain themselves in their school studies, but also that the curricula imposed upon these youngsters are at best poorly adjusted to current exigencies.

A concomitant effect of the work of the remedial project has been the realization on the part of many teachers of content subjects that they too must prepare

their pupils, the normal as well as the slow, to meet the reading difficulties peculiar to their subjects. In the last year or so, teachers of the content studies have expressed a desire for guidance and information concerning reading techniques.

Scores of studies soberly conducted in the last few years have brought home to the educator and the layman two alarming facts: the first is that a large percentage of non-academic-minded pupils do not know how to read with the degree of efficiency necessary for the ordinary use of their textbooks. The second is that a large percentage of academic-minded pupils possessing normal intelligence, of whom one would expect competent performance in the various studies, are handicapped by the same reading disabilities. A majority of these pupils are unable to meet even the definitive requirement of reading, namely, the ability to secure meaning from print. Small wonder, then, that they cannot effectively combat the rigors of content-subject work on the secondary level. The reading disabilities which handicap these pupils tend to become aggravated from term to term and lead to school failures. Poor school achievement leads to a sense of inferiority. Personality and behavior problems set in. Education has failed, and another social problem has been created.

The number and quality of the services of the special remedial

teachers in the New York City high schools constitute a story of notable achievement in the direction of youth rehabilitation. Retarded readers have been given what is tantamount to individual instruction, only three or four pupils being assigned to each teacher for the typical 45-minute session. Under conditions as ideal as these, it has been possible to make individual diagnosis and offer suitable individual treatment. The results of this type of treatment have been unusually successful. Retarded readers have progressed at three times the normal rate of learning in a single term. In addition, the project teachers have succeeded in raising two out of every seven backward pupils to the high school reading level. The reading vocabulary of these low-ability readers has been extended far beyond the juvenile range. More important still, they have received useful training in proper methods of attacking new words. Good habits in the mechanics of reading have been promoted. Bad habits of vocalization and lip-, head-, and finger-movement have been virtually eliminated. Pupils have received helpful guidance in discriminating between main and subsidiary thoughts in a reading selection, and following the thread of an author's thought without losing their way. They have been trained to attack new reading material which is not predominantly narrative in character. Perhaps because

the remedial teachers did not set up rapid reading as an immediate objective, but sought rather to promote speed in reading by improving comprehension, the reading rate of these slow readers has been materially increased. There has been inculcated in them a genuine desire to do independent reading. As a result of their journeys to fresh fields and pastures new, their experiential background has been considerably broadened and enriched. One of the more important results of this intensive training in remedial reading has been a marked improvement in the ability of the pupils to perform the various study activities demanded of them in their content subjects. Their reading skills sharpened, these low ability readers have been able to achieve a measure of success in their content studies which would not have been possible without remedial training. A favorable influence has been apparent not only in their scholarship but in their behavior and attitudes.

The most concrete result of the work of the remedial project in New York City has been the incorporation of remedial reading into the structure of the regular English course of study. In February of this year, a city-wide test was administered to 20,000 elementary school graduates entering the high schools. The pupils whose reading status, as revealed by this standardized test, was found to be one year or more below grade were

originally placed in special English classes of small register. These classes, conducted by licensed teachers of English, perform the usual activities undertaken in first-term classes. The emphasis of instruction, however, is placed on the development of proper reading methods and on remedial and preventive techniques. The experiment is now but six months old. It will be continued next fall. In 1939, in all likelihood, the high school division will publish its results, and seriously consider a long-range program of remedial instruction which will embrace content subjects as well as English. Undoubtedly teachers from all parts of the country will watch with great interest the results of this experiment.

Heartening, indeed, are these manifold signs of a much-needed recrudescence of interest in remedial reading. The many notable studies in reading published in the last fifteen years, particularly the two monumental yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education, are bearing rich fruit. But we must not be deceived into a feeling of false security that the war against reading retardation, in New York City, or elsewhere, is over. The problem of reading retardation cannot be solved solely by the adoption of enriched curricula which provide adequate incentive for pupils to desire to read, or the application of remedial methods to convalescent readers.

Major campaigns will be undertaken on other fronts.

Teachers of English need to revise their charter of obligations to youth in terms of the contemporary situation. English teachers are wont to arrogate to themselves the holy mission of spreading the gospel of beauty and truth. How much more delightful it is to soar on the wings of fancy in the rarefied stratosphere of Shakespeare and Shelley and Edna Millay than to walk the pedestrian paths of remedial instruction. It seems to me that we have gone a bit too far in our emphasis on "appreciation". English teachers with a belletristic bias must first prove that their pupils possess a satisfactory measure of competence in reading. If they do not, the feast of belles-lettres must be denied these pupils until their basic reading skills have been sharpened. It is not enough to lament the low state of reading achievement or to point an accusing finger at teachers in the lower schools. Teachers of English have a responsibility to teach reading at all levels; this responsibility should not be shirked by any teachers working with curricula heavily weighted with the materials of pure literature. They must be reminded that English is initially a tool and only secondarily a subject.

The concern of English teachers with "Creativism" in all its forms at the expense of basic instruction in reading is to be deplored. The

very fact of the present conference, however, should go a long way in the direction of altering this point of view. The officials of the National Council of Teachers of English are to be congratulated on the fact that they are dedicating at least one session of this year's conference to the forgotten pupil who cannot read.

An appraisal should be made to determine the adequacy of present methods of reading instruction in the lowest grades of the primary school. The abandonment of formal reading instruction in the seventh grade, the critical point at which pupils undertake their first studies of content subjects, all of which have forms of thought presentation peculiar to themselves, has been a serious mistake. Formal training in reading should be extended above the sixth grade; in fact, from that year on, if reading is to exercise its proper function as the basic tool for the mastery of the various content subjects, it should become highly specialized. Content teachers, upon whom a heavy responsibility lies, should make their own studies of the reading skills and habits necessary in their subjects. The corrective treatment in reading which they adopt should be systematically and not opportunistically administered. Teachers of content subjects are notoriously reluctant to concern themselves with reading problems. Their preoccupation with the content aspect of their work has

blinded them to the necessity of first discovering the state of their pupils' reading readiness and of giving instruction in understanding their textbooks. True, their complaint is they must, in the course of a term's work, traverse a vast curricular area, but this work can certainly not be accomplished with any degree of success if their pupils lack the primary skill of reading. What, one may fairly ask, is a history teacher if he is not one who teaches his pupils how to read a history book?

Gains must be made along still other frontiers. Teachers must be educated in the uses and values of standardized reading tests. Better tests should be developed. Tests used in city schools should take account of the diversified urban backgrounds of the pupils. In the construction of these tests, teachers should play a more active part than they have in the past. Classroom teachers can render valuable service by indicating to the research worker the need for further studies in related fields. The great need of teachers today is for better methods of instruction. Studies in reading should give less emphasis to statistical findings and greater emphasis to remedial methods.

Well-intentioned persons draw up lists of suggested leisure reading for all types of pupils. The time consumed by these persons could be more profitably spent in urging city systems to provide

more adequate library facilities. The most comprehensive or selective lists of books are useless if the books themselves are not immediately available. In the classroom itself, a wide range of books for communal study should be the rule rather than the exception. Few books exist which deserve the intensive application of the average high school pupil for more than a dozen or so lessons.

City systems of education, themselves retarded by invisibly small budgets, should experiment with small classes for pupils who are three and four years below the high school level of reading achievement. The organization of small classes for retarded readers should prove an excellent investment.

A movement deserving of support by all is that calling for the simplification and revision of classics. Far too many teachers and supervisors hold the classics inviolate; their indignation at even sober efforts of editing is nothing more than a squeamishness which has no place in the make-up of persons more concerned with child-development than with literature.

Some persons have lately inclined towards the use of machines in the conduct of their program of remedial reading. The use of mechanical contrivances by those who would be known as experts bestows only a specious authority upon their undertakings. The day of the clinic will soon be here,

of course, but at this stage of the struggle, with so many pupils lying upon the battleground crying for immediate attention, the emphasis of educators should be on remedial reading material of a high medicinal or nutritive value. Research studies have not yet substantiated the claims made for machines. Besides, the machine has not yet been devised which can perform for the delinquent reader what a series of good reading selections, intrinsically interesting and properly graded, can do. Rhythm reading, reading for speed—these are but nostrums hawked about in the educational market-place. *Caveat emptor*. Salvation does not lie in mechanical treatment.

The natural approach to the solution of the reading problem is through the betterment of reading materials. More books in the content subjects must be written with an eye to assisting the retarded reader to grasp more firmly the various concepts involved. These books must be sufficiently challenging also to pupils capable of higher achievement. Unfortunately, there are too many textbooks in use today conceived and written with greater regard for securing the approbation of scholars than enlisting the sympathy and attention of young readers.

There must be a complete revision of the criteria of suitable reading materials, which are the *sine qua non* of any rational pro-

gram of remedial reading. These materials must deal intriguingly with current experiences, they must be expressed in the modern idiom, and they must be nicely adjusted to the various levels of achievements. The publication of a large assortment of fresh reading materials meeting these standards would greatly alleviate the read-

ing ills which plague so many pupils in the junior and secondary schools today.

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RECENT EXPERIMENTS IN THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Recently educators in general and the teachers of foreign languages in particular, were amazed to learn that a selected group of pupils in P. S. 99, Brooklyn, had been studying French for two years, at the end of which time the majority of them had passed the regular two-year Regents examination. In other words, this group, chosen on the basis of their ability in English in the 6B grade, had studied French during the following two years and then taken the regular two-year French examination given by the Board of Regents with astonishing results.

The writer thought it appropriate to bring this experiment before the Foreign Language Section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education (at its meeting on March 11, 1938), and therefore extended an invitation to Dr. Theodore Huebener,

Assistant Director of Foreign Languages in the High Schools, and Mr. Meyer Padve, at present Principal of the East New York Junior High School, formerly Principal of P. S. 99, and the initiator of the experiment, to describe this and other experiments in foreign language teaching. Their papers follow.

The advantages to the pupils of this earlier start in foreign language instruction are discussed in very thorough fashion by both Dr. Huebener and Mr. Padve. In addition, Mr. Padve argues that by beginning the instruction of foreign languages in the 5A and continuing through the third year in high school, it would be possible to teach the present four-year high school course in a foreign language at a much more leisurely pace and permit the pupil to develop the ability to speak the for-

foreign language, which to the layman is the only indication of success in, and the only practical value of, the study of a foreign language. At first glance, this view arouses the criticism of the foreign language teachers because it runs counter to the tested and accepted chief objective of foreign language teaching, namely, the development of the ability to read with ease and enjoyment. It is undoubtedly true that under the present conditions where 85% of our students take only two years of a foreign language in high school all we can hope to achieve is the development of the ability to read. However, under Mr. Padve's plan, a pupil will have had four years in the elementary school and three years in high school, during which time he will have studied the equivalent of the present four-year high school. Certainly, it would seem that it is not too much to expect that under such conditions enough pupils would succeed in developing the ability to speak the language studied, with such a degree of proficiency as to make this a tenable aim in the teaching of foreign languages. At this stage it must be admitted that the plan propounded by Mr. Padve offers a fertile field for further experimentation.

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AN EXPERIMENT WITH A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

It is with some hesitation that the word "experiment" is used because there is very little real experimentation in educational procedures. Experimentation implies an objective attitude which is rarely present in the experimenter in the schools. The one who does the experimenting usually assumes subconsciously in advance that the experiment is bound to be a success and that its failure would reflect on the ability of the proponent of the experiment. The result is that in education there is no such thing as an experiment which has failed to achieve its objectives. Such an attitude on the part of educators vitiates the whole concept of experimentation.

With this thought in mind, I introduced the study of French in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school of which I was formerly in charge, P. S. 99, Brooklyn. The emphasis was not on the foreign language but on the idea that the curriculum should be enriched for the bright children. Such a new curriculum should be developed gradually and the present tendency to bring procedures, methods, and subject matter into the schools on a wholesale basis is to be strongly deprecated. It is undoubtedly desirable to examine our whole school program in the light of educational discoveries and to make the neces-

sary changes which are called for. Our future leaders of society, the bright children in the schools, have not been given an opportunity to develop their capabilities nor have we had an eye to the future in spurring these children on to study the program which they should strive to cultivate as our nation's ideals when they are at the helm. Art, music, the physical sciences, the social sciences, and foreign languages as cultural and practical values for our citizens and our country are some of the subjects which have not had sufficient emphasis in the elementary schools so as to stamp their tremendous importance on the minds of the pupils. It is the bright children who must be impressed with this newer concept since they are the ones who will set the tone of society in the next generation.

On this basis, a rather indefinite plan was evolved for the gradual evolution of such a program for bright children in the school, to be worked out over a period of years. It was purposely left vague and formless because once a plan is formulated along definite lines the danger is that the mind tends to follow along the course set, irrespective of what actual practice proves. We are inclined to read into the results conclusions that would agree with our crystalized plans, thereby vitiating the value of the experiment. It then becomes psychologically difficult to change our ideas in accordance with what

practice has shown to be desirable.

Owing to budget limitations, a foreign language was found to be the easiest to begin with. A regular teacher on the staff with the proper background and knowledge of French was available and with her enthusiastic support, one class of bright children was started on a course in French. With the fine coöperation of the French department of the Abraham Lincoln High School, this class used the two-year course followed in that high school. The class had five periods of forty minutes each, one period each day. In order to get the necessary time, it meant that these bright children would have to carry the full elementary school course in less time. For example, while the other children in the grade had five periods for arithmetic, this class was required to do the same work in four periods.

The result was that not only did this bright class have an additional subject to prepare but also had to carry the burden of a full elementary course. It was felt that the bright children could carry this additional load with comparative ease and at the same time it would demand that they work up to the capacity of their abilities. A few found that a two-year high school subject in addition to their other work was too much for them. They fell by the wayside and had to be sent to a normal group.

Within the limits of a short ar-

ticle, it is impossible to describe the experiment in detail. Some place, however, should be given to the evaluation of this work. At the end of 8B after a two-year period, permission was secured from the associate superintendents in charge of elementary and high schools, Dr. Bayne and Dr. Roberts, and from the State Department of Education, to have this class take the two-year high school Regents' test in French. The children were brought to the Abraham Lincoln High School on June 14, 1937, where they were proctored by teachers of that school. The papers were not marked locally. They were sent unmarked to Albany and rated there. The State Department insisted on a passing mark of 75%, instead of the usual 65% for public high school students. No one connected with the carrying out of the experiment had any part either in the proctoring or in the marking of the papers.

The state Department reported the following results for the 35 pupils entered in the examination:

Percentage Rating	No. of Students
90 - 100	3
80 - 89	5
75 - 79	10
65 - 74	13
below 65	4

The average percentage attained was 71.69 with 18 passing with 75% or higher and 17 receiving less than 75%. If we accept the

usual 65% passing mark, the average percentage attained was 88.57 with 31 receiving 65% or better and 4 below 65%. No comparison was attempted with the results obtained by the regular high school students in this test but the impression is that this result compares very favorably with the regular high school ratings in the same examination.

Although these results showed that bright elementary school pupils could do senior high school work in foreign languages successfully, it was felt that the burden of carrying this course in addition to a full elementary school program was too heavy. The next bright class, therefore, was required to cover only one year of the high school course, equivalent to the junior high school work, in the two years from 7A to 8B. At the end of the 8B this second class was given the city-wide junior high school examination. The average percentage attained by the class was over 86%. In other words, these objective results show that bright elementary school children can carry high school subjects at a younger age without much difficulty.

For those interested in foreign languages in the schools, there are some interesting thoughts in this experiment. Foreign languages should have their place in the newer curriculum which is evolving for elementary schools. It should, however, be strictly limited to bright

groups. One of the attacks that foreign language teachers in our schools have to meet is that after a four-year course, students are unable to make much use of the language conversationally or orally. This, in my opinion, is due in large measure to the fact that four years is too short a time adequately to cover the excellent course of study which is now in use in the high school. The work is taken at too rapid a pace to make it part of the student's intellectual equipment. Besides, it is important to start foreign language teaching with younger children when the mind is more receptive and flexible. I, therefore, suggest that interested teachers should work for a modification of foreign language teaching so that the present four-year course is spread over a period of eight years. The first two years should be covered in four years from 5A to 8B in the elementary schools and the second two years in the high schools from 9A to 12B. This would make it possible for the students to absorb the language more slowly and enable the teachers to make the course more thorough both from a literary and conversational angle. Of course, this raises practical questions of administration as to teacher training, salaries, and similar matters but, with persistence, adjustments can be made.

In conclusion, it may well be noted that foreign languages in the school curriculum will have to

withstand vigorous and increasing attacks by those educational forces that insist on other subjects as having greater value for the student body. In my opinion, the final word will be given by public opinion. Our lay citizen body tends to judge educational values not from the professional viewpoint but from the practical one of what good any subject is to the student in his every day activities. If my assumption is correct, then foreign languages are on the defensive, since the lay public judges such language teaching by the ability of the student to use it conversationally after four years of study. Our students can not do this and so the professional language teacher tends to minimize this value and avoids the issue by insisting that the literary and cultural values are of far greater importance. Perhaps that is true but my prophecy is that the public will refuse to judge the curriculum on that basis and, in time, under the hammering of opposing educators, will insist that foreign languages, except for a few students, be taken out of the schools. I suggest that it would be wise to develop a program by which foreign language students will be able to use the language orally with reasonable ability at the end of a given period. This can best be done by bringing the course into the elementary school as I have suggested. By taking the subject at a much slower pace and spreading

the content over a longer period of time, with emphasis on conversation rather than literary values, teachers may be able to stem the tide against the elimination of foreign languages from our curriculum. This experiment that I conducted in P. S. 99, Brooklyn, may perhaps be of value in showing the way.

MEYER PADVE.

Principal, East New York Junior High School.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Largely in connection with the idea of enriching the curriculum for the bright child, a number of Brooklyn principals have introduced foreign language as a subject of instruction into their schools. When a brief description of one of the so-called experiments appeared in the papers, an unusual amount of interest was aroused among principals, parents, pupils and publishers.

In fact, a number of principals expressed the desire to do something similar in their own schools. In the belief that other elementary school administrators might like to undertake the introduction of foreign languages for their bright pupils, several types of organization of such beginners' courses are described below.

Already there are twenty language classes in seven different elementary schools with an enrollment of approximately 500 pupils.

If the movement spreads, it will do much toward overcoming the greatest weakness of the present system of language instruction. Instead of providing but two years in the high school, which at best is inadequate, the pupil will pursue an uninterrupted course for five to eight years, comparable to what is offered in the European *lycée* and *gymnasium*. The notion that language instruction should begin earlier is psychologically and pedagogically sound.

Furthermore, a foreign language if properly taught, enriches the curriculum with the finest, most versatile, and most interesting cultural subject.

It is to be hoped that a greater number of elementary schools will provide such a course for their brighter children.

AT P. S. 208, BROOKLYN

A teacher of Tilden High School meets the Spanish Class twice weekly on his way home. An articulation program has been set up between 208 and Tilden which has the enthusiastic support of both principals.

The pupils are given credit for one term's work if they pass the first term high school examination at 75%.

One group in Spanish did so well that they were given a year's credit in the senior school.

In French, a W. P. A. teacher meets classes twice a week, viz., Tuesdays and Thursdays. Since the

W. P. A. people have been recalled and the parents are eager to have this work go on, she is paid by a parents' club interested in French.

Latin is also offered in this school. One of the members of the staff, a classical scholar, takes pupils of the 8th grade in the morning between 8:40 and 9:30, also on Tuesdays and Thursdays. It is believed that this will give the children a good start in high school.

In French, the work is begun in 1A for the bright children. The whole setup is an experiment for the bright, approved by the Board of Education under the direction of Dr. Benjamin Greenberg. The enrichment program includes extra work in languages, typewriting, natural sciences, and manners.

The children are selected on the basis of an intelligence test (Binet) and a reading test. The lowest I.Q. is 130. The principal, however, feels that the reading test is far more important than the I.Q.

In French, there are four groups: one beginners', two intermediate, and one advanced. In Spanish, there are two; in Latin, one. The Latin is done only in the 8th year.

The Principal, Miss Ebeling, is eminently satisfied with the work and says that the children maintain themselves well in high school. On the last Regents ex-

amination the lowest mark of any of these children was 78%. The lowest I.Q. in this particular group was 135.

A center for bright children in every district is now projected.

AT P. S. 99, BROOKLYN

In this school, French was added to the curriculum by Mr. Padve, former Principal, in an endeavor to enrich the work for the bright pupils. There are, at present, four classes: 7A, 7B, 8A, and 8B.

The teacher is a well equipped and efficient one, although inclined to be somewhat serious and formal in her methodology. She secures excellent results in examinations.

The class which she taught for two years took the Regents' examination last year and secured a higher average than all of the high schools in the City. Only one pupil failed to pass, although the papers were marked at Albany, after the pupils had been examined in a strange school with strange proctors. In other words, pupils two years below the high school age level passed the Regents' examination successfully.

The new principal of the school, Miss Fletcher, is not a formalist and is eager to have more informality introduced into the work. She is heartily in favor of this experiment, but questions the advisability of restricting the language work entirely to French.

AT P. S. 139, BROOKLYN

Classes in French are taught at this school by four grade teachers. All are regular members of the staff and have had no special training in foreign language work since their college days. However, all of them are so interested in the work for which they have volunteered, that they are taking courses to improve themselves in their French.

Instruction is given by these four teachers five times a week, viz., every morning from 8:45 to 9:35. Instruction in French begins in 3A. The books are bought by the children themselves. In the lowest class, an interesting text by Hélène Octave, entitled, "A French Book to Read All by Myself" is used. In upper classes they use "Tout Français."

In the beginners' class and the fourth year class, practically all of the work is in French, the teacher making all of her comments and giving her commands in the foreign language. The pronunciation of the children is remarkable, and their fluency in oral work is astounding. The board work is particularly neat because of the employment of manuscript writing.

The pupils are selected on the

basis of an intelligence test and the McCall reading test. The I.Q. ranges from 120 up. Pupils are required to exceed the grade and age requirement by one year.

The classes are fitted into what would otherwise be "official period."

Oral work, much board work, dictation, dramatization, and conversation are all employed regularly and liberally.

Three of the four teachers are quite young; all of them are energetic, capable, and enthusiastic.

The work is by no means on a small group basis. In fact, one teacher was teaching a class of fifty pupils.

The type of child is of a high cultural level.

It is evident, then, that these elementary school classes in foreign languages are still in an experimental stage. The hopeful thing about them is that all connected with the enterprise—pupils, teachers, principals, and parents—are enthusiastic about what is being accomplished, and that interest in the experiment is spreading rapidly.

DR. THEODORE HUEBENER,
Assistant Director
of Foreign Languages.

THE PASSING OF THE TRADITIONAL TEXTBOOK

And the Teacher gathered His pupils about Him and said: "These are the words which have been set down, that ye should know them." Perhaps there may be chronological ages separating the dictates on Mount Sinai from the commands in the modern educational skyscraper, but the commandment is no less vocal, nor has time diminished in the modern practise the terror associated with its historical precedent.

A great teacher and teacher of teachers once said that nothing served so effectively as a skillful weapon in social studies instruction as the textbook which was replete with errors in scholarship. Yet, at the present time, in the hands of the traditional teacher who demands constant compliance with the written word, the textbook becomes the last and final judgment.

This critique, however, is not so much concerned with textbooks faulty because of errors in scholarship. Even the most passivist

among us in the ranks of social studies teachers will concede that attention needs to be focussed upon the foregoing. Our present concern is the indifference with which most of us reveal to our students the extent of propaganda and indoctrination in the social studies textbooks currently in use in our secondary schools.

With the preceding aim in mind the writer distributed the following material in mimeographed form to groups of seventh termers who were completing the first of a three term fusion course in American History and Economics. This material was adapted in large part from Arthur Walworth's *School Histories at War* (Harvard University Press, 1938), "a study of the treatment of our wars in the secondary school textbooks of the United States and in those of its former enemies," and one which may yet prove to be a monumental effort in the direction of emotional disarmament and in furnishing the "moral equivalents for war."

ABOUT THE WAR OF 1812

IN THE CANADIAN LAND OF LUMBER

Muir—*British History* (1929)

"This was the most futile and wasteful of wars. Its only result was to embitter the relations between the two main groups of English speaking peoples. To most Englishmen at the time it seemed to be a stab in the back, delivered when Britain was fighting for her life and for the freedom of the world. To most Americans, it appeared to be a war in defense of the freedom of traffic on the seas, against the naval tyranny of Britain."

Wallace—*A History of the Canadian People* (1936)

"The War of 1812 had its ostensible origin in questions connected with the Napoleonic struggle in Europe . . . But it is by no means certain that the ostensible reasons for the war were the real reasons. The New England states, which were the most vitally affected by the actions of the British navy, were on the whole opposed to the war; and the chief demand for war came from the southern and western states, where a strong and very vocal party, known as the war hawks, thought that the time was opportune to invade and occupy Canada."

Bingay—*History of Canada* (1934)

"In 1812, seizing the opportunity of the Napoleonic War, the United States declared war against Great Britain, with the object of taking Canada, which was again invaded unsuccessfully, English and French uniting to repel the aggressor."

McArthur—*History of Canada for High Schools* (1931)

"Some Americans charged the Canadians with actively encouraging the Indians to wage war on the white settlers. It is not necessary to believe such charges to understand the hostility of the American frontiersman to the Canadian traders . . . There were other reasons . . . The vision of Canada as part of the United States was attractive."

IN THE AMERICAN LAND OF COTTON

Muzzey—*History of the American People* (1936)

"Harrison strengthened the belief of the West that British officials had been inciting the Indians on our frontier ever since St. Clair's defeat of twenty years before, by reporting the capture of new guns and ample supplies of the best British glazed powder at Tippecanoe, evidently obtained from the king's stores at Malden."

Latane—*History of the American People* (1930)

"Another grievance against Great Britain arose out of the aid and encouragement given by the Canadian authorities to the Indians of the Northwest . . . The Indians (those whom Harrison fought) had secured their arms and ammunition in Canada and it was generally believed that the British authorities had incited them to acts of hostility."

Beard—*Making of American Civilization* (1937)

"On land no less than on sea, the British were belligerent toward the United States. They protected the Indian chief Tecumseh, who was terrifying the frontier by his forays on white settlements . . . British support of the Indians was not only provoking; it was a serious matter for the American."

Latane—*History of the American People* (1930)

"The impressment question was the main cause of the popular feeling against England, and that alone was enough to justify war."

Vannest and Smith—*Socialized History of the United States* (1936)

"America resents the continued insults. England continues to impress American seamen. American vessels were now permitted to carry on commerce with France and as soon as this trade started English warships stationed themselves across our coasts. They stopped our vessels, searched them, confiscated their cargoes, and impressed our seamen. The American government was aroused . . ."

AS SEEN WITH THE ENGLISH
MONOCLE

Rayner—*A Concise History of Britain 1688-1815* (1934)

"The American colonies were the freest communities in the world—certainly no other power allowed overseas possessions anything like such a degree of independence . . . But the better off people are, the better they want to be; and bad feeling had long been arising between the colonists and the home government. There were two main causes of disagreement. Firstly, the colonists resented having officials sent out, especially as they were connected with the ruling class in Britain, and therefore men of very different upbringing and outlook from their own. The colonial assemblies sometimes refused to vote the salaries of these officials and the result was a good deal of unseemly bickering. Secondly, the colonials did not dispute the right of the home government to regulate their trade—they simply ignored it, by carrying on wholesale smuggling."

Brett—*British History, A School Certificate Course, 1688-1815* (1936)

"The Seven Years War had to be paid for, and as it had been fought mainly in the interests of the colonists, justice seemed to indicate that they should share in the cost. It was the attempt to enforce this policy which provoked colonial resistance and hence was the first of the events leading to the outbreak of war."

Wallace—*A History of the Canadian People* (1930)

"In their desire for independence . . . the thirteen colonies had been far from unanimous. It has been estimated that fully one third of them, if not more, were opposed to the Declaration of Independence. There are historians, indeed, who have maintained that the revolutionists were an organized and energetic minority who imposed their will on an unorganized and uncertain majority."

AS SEEN WITH THE AMERICAN
EYEGLASS

Wertenbaker and Smith—*The United States of America* (1931)

"Grenville's plan was neither wise nor entirely just. It is true that England had always defended her colonies, and that at times the expense had been heavy, but she received a rich compensation. She had grown wealthy and powerful through her colonial trade, a trade in which she had not hesitated to sacrifice the interests of the colonies. Although the Americans had contributed little directly to the British treasury, they had contributed millions of pounds to the development of British prosperity."

Muzzey—*History of the American People* (1936)

"By these Intolerable Acts, as they were called in America, Parliament thought it was punishing the colony of Massachusetts, but it soon found that it had stirred a whole people to resistance."

Guitteau—*History of the United States* (1937)

"By resisting the arbitrary measures of such a government, Englishmen living in the colonies were really fighting the cause of English liberty in the motherland."

"To Grenville's mind it appeared just and reasonable that the colonies should share the burden of their military protection. Undoubtedly the colonists would have agreed with this conclusion if they had accepted the premise; but they emphatically denied the military necessity for a standing army in America, and reasoning from English precedents, they had good reason to fear the presence of such an army would be constant menace to colonial rights."

ABOUT THE MEXICAN WAR
AS VIEWED UNDER THE MEXICAN
SOMBRERO

Toro—*Historia De Mexico* (1926)

"In discussing the Texan War—the root of almost all our troubles with the United States—we have seen how the latter had been breathing intentions of territorial expansion at our expense ever since the days before we gained our independence in 1821 . . .

"The real aim was the addition of the seething republic of Texas to the United States, an event which was the subject of diplomatic disputes between us and that country in 1844."

Verdia—*Historia de Mexico* (1935)

"That revolt would not have occurred if the colonists had relied only on their own scant resources; but they were strengthened by the determined support of the United States, which supplied them armaments, munitions, arms and even soldiers who spoke of themselves as "Deserters" from the American Army."

Toro—*Historia de Mexico* (1926)

"Since a time before Mexico became independent, the United States was desirous of extending its territory at the expense of that of New Spain, to the Rio Grande. They alleged so-called rights, invaded the territory often, and gave a rise to frequent claims that never were adequately satisfied . . . Perhaps in spite of all their just complaints, the Texans would have clung to Mexico if it had not been for the political forces put in play in the neighboring country—the struggle for political predominance between the northern states and those of the South. The former were enemies of slavery, while the latter believed the maintenance of such an institution essential to their existence."

"The partisans of the South looked toward us to increase their territory, make new slave states out of it, and strengthen their domination. . . ."

AS VIEWED UNDER THE AMERICAN
DERBY

Faulkner and Kepner—*America* (1934)

"It was hardly to be expected that these aggressive Anglo-Saxon frontiersmen could long dwell in peace under the control of a people representing a very different civilization and under a weak and inefficient government continually changing as one revolution succeeded another."

Wertenbaker and Smith—*United States* (1931)

"Suddenly the Mexicans in overwhelming numbers fell on San Patricio and annihilated the garrison. A few days later the main army, perhaps 3000 strong, closed in on San Antonio. The brave W. B. Travis led his men into an old Spanish mission called the Alamo, and awaited the assault. Here, in desperate hand-to-hand fighting, the last of the Texans was cut down. Not one of the defenders survived. Thermopylae had its messenger of fate, the Alamo had none. A few days later a band of four hundred Americans were surrounded at Goliad, and, though they surrendered on condition that they should be treated as prisoners of war, were slaughtered in cold blood. As the remaining groups of Texans fell back they vowed vengeance for the Alamo and the Goliad."

Wertenbaker and Smith—*United States* (1931)

"The people of the United States had watched the heroic struggle of the Texans with interest. To many it seemed a contest of liberal institutions against despotism, of Anglo-Saxons against Spaniards and Indians."

Adams and Vannest—*Record of America* (1935)

"The war with Mexico has been described by earlier historians as a war of aggression on the part of the United States for the purpose of acquiring territory for the extension of the institution of slavery. This view, in the light of recent investigations, does not seem to be the correct one, for our government tried to remain neutral during the Texas revolution. Furthermore, since Texas had maintained her independence for nine years, and since she wished to come into the Union, we had a right to annex her without offense to Mexico."

AS DISCUSSED ALONG VIA MADRID

Bleye—*Compenio de Historia de Espana* (1933)

"The Spanish government published a decree (November 27) granting autonomy to Porto Rico and Cuba. But President McKinley answered this decree (December 6) in his message to Congress, by declaring that the United States was ready to intervene with force when it could undertake this action with assurance of the approval of the civilized world. In view of such statements, it was natural that the insurgents should accept autonomy."

Ballester—*Curso de Historia de Espana* (1933)

"The concession of autonomy to Cuba in December of 1897 did not appease the ardor of the interventionist party in the United States which was gaining in public opinion . . . The American government intimated to the Spanish that if in a short time a satisfactory agreement were not reached which would assure the pacification of the island, a *casus belli* would be presented to Congress. The Spanish government appealed to the European powers, offering to submit to the decision of an arbitral tribunal; but the United States insisted upon attributing to the Spanish government the responsibility for the explosion of the Maine and upon requiring immediate pacification, declaring at the same time the freedom of Cuba and armed intervention."

Espinosa—*Compendio de Historia de Espana* (recently corrected)

"Unfortunately, the separatist war . . . broke out anew in Cuba, thanks to the support of the United States. . . . The United States, maintaining that Spain should at last recognize the independence of Cuba, brought on the conflict between our nation and that powerful republic. They carried the struggle not only to our Antilles but also to the Philippine archipelago, which was already in revolt against Spain."

AS DISCUSSED ALONG MAIN STREET

Adams and Vannest—*Record of America* (1933)

"The government by Spain was inefficient, weak, and venal. In 1895 a new insurrection had broken out, under Maximio Gomez, a Santo Domingan. General Weyler was sent from Spain to quell it . . . Weyler's policy was one of ruthless suppression. In the course of carrying it out he adopted the plan of gathering the people from certain country districts into 'concentration camps,' leaving him free to deal with the rebels outside . . . Due partly to the basic impossibility of Weyler's plan, partly to the natural inefficiency of the Spanish authorities, and partly to other causes, there was much suffering among the reconcentrados herded into the camps. Sickness and insufficient food took a large toll of life . . . though the number of deaths, like all else in the situation, was exaggerated enormously for propaganda purposes."

Muzzey—*History of the American People* (1936)

"The cause of the trouble was the island of Cuba, the 'pearl of the Antilles,' which had been the proud possession of the crown of Spain since its discovery by Columbus four hundred years before. The oppressive rule of the Spanish officials in Cuba bred a smoldering discontent, which broke out from time to time in insurrection. The one which started in 1895 was devastating. Bands of insurgents roamed the country, destroying the plantations; and the cruel governor-general, Butcher Weyler, herded the old men, the women, and the children into prison camps, where they died like flies of starvation and disease."

Wertebaker and Smith—*United States* (1931)

"The island for centuries was a prey to misgovernment, proud Spanish officials monopolizing all posts of honor, robbing the natives, and subjecting them to indignities . . . the unhappy reconcentrados, penned in like cattle, with foul air, foul water, foul food, perished by the thousands."

TO THE TUNE OF "DEUTSCHLAND
UBER ALLES"

Wilms—*Deutsche Geschichte* (1935)

"President Wilson had from the beginning held fast to an equivocal neutrality. His inclinations were evidently toward the interests of the Allies. He obstinately and self-righteously belabored Germany, having no comprehension of the justifiable complaints concerning the attacks by England on the rights of neutrals. He had an inexhaustible patience and respect for England and its Allies, and gladly suffered American industry to wax fat out of armament and munitions deliveries to the Entente. While he knocked the props from under the neutral trade with Germany, he opposed submarine warfare and demanded for every American the right to go unmolested through war zones."

Ebner—*Geschichte der Neuzeit* (1936)

"Through secret assistance from 'neutral' America . . . the Entente hoped to be able to destroy the German army."

"The renewed and intensified submarine warfare (February 1917) gave America the ostensible cause for a declaration of war against Germany (April 1917). The real causes were economic necessity; America was war-purveyor and creditor for the Allies."

Schnabel—*Geschichte der Neuzeit* (1936)

"Wilson was without doubt prejudiced against Germany. He was filled with the political theory and cultural views of western Europe and he was also bound by his solicitude for American business interests, which were heavily damaged by the U-Boat warfare and which on the other hand wished very much to profit by the war by the delivery of war supplies."

TO THE TUNE OF "OVER THERE"

Guitteau—*History of the United States* (1937)

"This theory (German objection to America's trading with England) was not well founded, for the right of private individuals to sell arms to belligerents was well established under international law; and German firms, notably the Krupp works, had sold munitions during every war in modern times."

Faulkner and Kepner—*America* (1934)

"Serious as were England's infractions of neutral rights, they were concerned chiefly with property rights. German violations involved the loss of American lives and were the immediate cause of our entrance into the war."

Barker, Dodd and Commager—*Our Nation's Development* (1934)

"The German submarine policy was the cause of the growth of war sentiment in the United States, but both German and Austrian agents were guilty of acts which also aroused the greatest indignation. They tried to enlist soldiers in the United States and get them out of the country on false passports."

Muzzey—*History of the American People* (1936)

"Emissaries (of Germany and Austria) placed bombs on board munitions ships, blew up bridges, and fomented strikes in munitions plants."

Faulkner and Kepner—*America* (1934)

"In September Germany pledged that 'liners will not be sunk . . . without warning and without safety of the lives of non-combatants, provided that liners do not try to escape or offer resistance.' This pledge she broke in March 1916 when the passenger steamer *Sussex* was torpedoed, injuring several American citizens."

At the conclusion of their study of this material, the students were invited to set forth their reactions. The following are offered as samples:

"Since I am one of those patriotic people, I can't help feeling that no war has ever been caused or encouraged by America. However, as I read the conclusions of persons more learned and experienced than I on this subject of the why and wherefore of wars, I found it quite obvious each was in his own way merely defending the cause of his respective country and presenting the rights and wrongs of the countries involved to allow the reader a proper adjustment of mind. The net result for myself was the upsetting of a train of thought which had heretofore been comparatively distinct.

"'About the World War with Germany' I think best illustrates my point. The German writers present their opinions as in direct opposition to the war-time principles of ex-President Wilson, and accuse the Allies and the U. S. of having taken every possible advantage of Germany's unfavorable position; the writers for America seem to say that Germany was deserving of her every punishment and was the true cause for America's entrance into the war as a result of the disastrous submarine policy.

"Nevertheless the whole matter of 'Who's got the button?' is rather futile inasmuch as the dam-

age has been done and the effect will probably never be forgotten. All the time the countries childishly blame each other for having been the cause. What the *real* pity seems to be though is that in the entire course of my schooling never have I been shown several books on such a subject so that I might compare opinions coming from all directions with those to be found in assigned textbooks based entirely upon American points of view. Undoubtedly this same idea is followed as well in foreign countries—but how a country can resort to such a means for portraying her feeble courage is beyond me."

M. K.

"In view of the perfectly evident discrepancies in the material found in the book as viewed from opposite sides, it is manifest that your material depends upon the point of view taken. Since we must realize that all textbooks are prejudiced and that it is doubtful if a student ever receives a truly unbiased book, we have to take all the subject matter with a ton of salt. It is indeed a sorry situation when countries are forced to cover up their unethical moves by giving to their students 'the citizens of tomorrow,' textbooks which offer untrue pictures as a basis of patriotism. It would undoubtedly be better if they printed the truth and trusted that there were enough of the 'my-country-right-or-wrong-my country-' theory to carry them through."

P. J.

"As I read about the various wars from the textbooks of the opposing countries, I realized that a person's opinions and ideas on wars depend upon what country he lives in. He believes certain things because they are taught to us from the American point of view while the English, German and Spanish naturally learn entirely different ideas. If we lived in Canada we would believe that the War of 1812 was fought to keep Canada from becoming a part of the United States. On the whole, each country believes that it was right and others wrong in every war in which it participated."

E. G.

"These five papers referring to the five wars in which the United States took part show clearly the difference of opinions that exists in combatant countries. It is only natural for each country to claim that it was the other one's fault and to teach their future citizens that their country is without a doubt the best in the world and that every war they got into was the other country's fault, for they were merely trying to protect the peace of the world. While it is only natural for the countries to absolve themselves from blame it would be an advantage for all concerned if these future citizens of the world would study both sides of the question and try to understand the feelings of their own country and also those of the people who were at one time enemies. For one of the greatest dis-

rupting factors of world peace is the misunderstanding between nations and there seems to be very little that can be done about it; because racial hate is so deep in the hearts of some Europeans that even if they were shown how other countries were only standing up for their rights, during a war they would not listen. If they were not so tragic these papers would be comical but there is nothing comical in one of the underlying causes of death and destruction that every war brings."

H. S.

"The study of the opinions of one country as compared with those of another concerning international affairs shows that we can never be sure that one country is wrong and another is right because from their way of looking at it they may both be right. Each country may be able to sincerely justify what they have done and the means with which they have accomplished their aims that they seem to be right. They can also show why they have been injured and why they must avenge themselves. On the other hand, the person who has injured them feels that they have been so right that there is absolutely no reason why their actions should be questioned. It shows the influence nationalism and propaganda have in shaping opinions and thoughts. This is evident in the fact that while we think that Italy is being very aggressive Italy thinks that they are doing what is right in making the

Mediterranean an Italian lake. In 1916 we thought that Germany was very imperialistic but the Germans thought that they were doing the world a favor in bringing the Fatherland to the world. It shows that two countries can never be reconciled to one another's point of view because of nationalism."

H. A.

"It has been noted that textbooks of different countries report different facts about certain wars in which their country has participated. Which of these is true? I'd like to know. Should we believe what our country prints or should we be critical when reading them. I think that we should be critical when reading the books. In the case of the Civil War the South prints different facts from the North. Even in the case of two sections of one country fighting together different facts are presented. What can we believe? How are we going to meet this problem? Can we ever agree about certain facts? I doubt this very

much. Every country believes that theirs is in the right. This is the feeling of nationalism. I think that we should read different books that different countries print and draw your own conclusions. I don't know how this problem can be remedied. I know that we can't force them to print anything that they don't believe is true. How do we know what facts are true and what facts are false? Can we reveal facts to other countries and have ways of proving them? I can't solve this problem but I'd be willing to back up anyone who had substantial evidence as to the ways these things can be remedied."

A. Y.

While a project such as the foregoing will certainly not solve all the ills of the educational world, the writer submits that it may go far in the direction of substituting for "mobmindedness" the very essential individual power of critical thought.

SIDNEY N. BARNETT.

Richmond Hill High School.

A PRELIMINARY STUDY OF QUESTIONS WHICH ADOLESCENTS FIND UNANSWERABLE*

How shall we evaluate an educational process or an educational system? Do we want:

1. Students who have no questions to ask because the school has given them all the answers?
2. Students who have no questions to ask because the school has consistently thwarted and penalized questioners, so that intellectual curiosity has died a slow and unnatural death?
3. Students who go forth with a diploma and hundreds of unanswered questions because the school has been afraid or unable to provide answers?

Obviously, this is not a fair list of alternatives or a complete one. There is a fourth possibility. But to state it now would be to run ahead of my story, as well as to over-simplify the way in which the entire problem presented itself to me originally.

Four years ago, I began collecting questions as a kind of hobby. A mimeographed form was prepared asking for "Questions to Which I Have Tried to Find a Satisfactory Answer and Failed." This form contained a brief de-

scription of the purpose of the inquiry and asked for data on age, sex, date of filling out, school grade, self-rating of scholastic achievement, types of books read, radio programs listened to, and concluded with a space for comments, either on the form itself or on anything else that occurred to the person filling out the form. Subjects were given to understand that any particular piece of information might be withheld if it was so desired. They also were told that questionless forms and those with questions were equally valuable. Next they were informed that there were no silly questions: anything which had genuinely baffled them was precisely the thing that was wanted. Finally, they were cautioned that they were not to expect answers. Forms were filled out in class or at home and were turned in anonymously.

The blanks have been given thus far to a grand total of 807 persons, ranging in age from 6 to 71. Of these persons, roughly 25% returned them without questions. The remainder, 602 cases, furnished a total of 1514 questions. A separate analysis will be published at some future time of those persons who had no questions. Separate reports also will be made on

*A paper delivered at one of the Educational Research Symposia of the High School Teachers and High School Principals Association February 26th, 1938.

the age periods 6 to 13, 19 to 39, 40 to 70 whenever sufficiently adequate data on these age ranges has been collected.

The present report limits itself to the age range 14 to 18 inclusive. While forms were given to 559 adolescents, 174 returned them

without questions. This leaves 385 cases, 174 boys, 211 girls, who asked 990 questions. The subjects, for the most part, were students of Evander Childs High School, selected at random.

At the adolescent level, then, we have the following data:*

Table I
Distribution of Cases as to Sex and Age

Age	No. Male	No. Female	Totals
14	29	71	100
15	46	71	118
16	56	57	113
17	33	10	43
18	10	1	11
Total	174	211	385

Table II
Distribution of Questions as to Sex and Age

Age	Total Questions	No. of Questions by Girls	No. of Questions by Boys	Questions per Boy	Questions per Girl	Questions per Individual
14	254	174	80	2.8	2.5	2.5
15	323	206	117	2.6	2.9	2.7
16	279	159	120	2.2	2.8	2.5
17	114	29	85	2.6	2.9	2.7
18	20	4	16	1.6	4.0	1.8
Total	990	572	418

Table III
Questions Arranged According to Frequency and Age

Age 14	Times asked
1. Why are we born, what use is life.....	13
2. What makes people unkind, selfish, etc.....	9
3. What is love, platonic love, true love.....	7
4. Is there a God.....	6
5. Is there such a thing as reincarnation.....	5
6. What happens to us (our souls) after we die.....	5
7. Why should there be wars, why do people go to war.....	4
8. Why does a new scene seem to have happened before.....	4
9. What makes the world rotate and why don't we feel it.....	4
10. Why must Man worship something.....	3

* This paper is called a preliminary study in view of the small number of cases, especially marked at ages 17 and 18, and also because of the preponderance of girls in the total sampling. However, the significance and usefulness to teachers of the unanswerable question technique as developed in the latter part of this paper, is independent of the number of cases or the precise questions which were asked.

Table III—Continued
Age 15

	Times asked
1. What is love, at first sight, real love, etc.....	30
2. Is there a God and who is He.....	13
3. What happens after death.....	13
4. What makes people boast, be unkind, etc.....	11
5. What is life, why do we live.....	8
6. What is religion, why do we have it.....	7
7. What is social popularity, how does one get it.....	7
8. Will the world ever end, how.....	6
9. What makes teachers mechanical, cranky, etc.....	6
10. Is there reincarnation.....	5

Age 16

	Times asked
1. What is love.....	13
2. What is life, why are we living, what worth is life.....	10
3. What will my future be.....	9
4. Is there a God, what is God.....	7
5. Is there a hereafter.....	7
6. What is death, and why are we afraid of it.....	6
7. Are childish fears carried through life, why do we fear.....	6
8. What is religion.....	6
9. Is the Bible true.....	5
10. What makes happiness—no worries, money, success, etc.....	5

Age 17

	Times asked
1. What will be my life work, future.....	5
2. What is love.....	5
3. Is there a God.....	3
4. What makes people selfish, cheat, etc.....	3
5. What is life, why do we live.....	3
6. How to develop personality.....	2
7. Why are history readings necessary.....	2
8. What makes people drag nationalities into sports, politics.....	1
9. How can racial prejudice be overcome.....	1
10. Why do parents pick one child for pet child.....	1

Age 18

	Times asked
1. Why do teachers act superior to pupils.....	2
2. What is God.....	1
3. Is there a hereafter.....	1
4. Are there any honest people in the world.....	1
5. Why are men and women false to themselves.....	1
6. Is there such a thing as true love.....	1
7. Why don't schools permit students to take the subjects they like.....	1
8. What is "Nothing".....	1
9. What is courage.....	1
10. Does every advantage have its disadvantage and vice versa.....	1

Table IV

Questions according to Frequency—Entire Adolescent Period
(Based on 990 questions, 572 asked by girls, 418 by boys)

	Times asked
1. Love	55
2. God	30
3. Death	24
4. Criticisms of people in general.....	23
5. Life	22
6. Future	21
7. The hereafter	21
8. Religion	14
9. Reincarnation	11
10. The end of the world.....	11

Table V

20 Questions Selected from the Entire Adolescent Group*

1. Although people continue to suffer during and after wars, we continue to have them, and no one seems to stop them. Why? 14G.
2. Why can't the same government control all the peoples of the world? 14G.
3. What do people get out of life when they don't give anything? 14G.
4. Why don't they teach sex in school? 14B.
5. Are our lives planned for us or do we do things because we want to or because we are compelled to? 15G.
6. Why should parents never give us the satisfaction of saying that we understand what is going on in the world about us, as in politics, religion, and so forth, and tell us that we are too young to understand? 15G.
7. Why do parents feel that if they give you the proper amount of clothes and money that you owe them something for the rest of your life? When something is done that the parents think shouldn't have been done, they immediately bring it up to you that they gave you everything you wanted and needed. It's true as far as clothes and money go, but have they ever given the child the right amount of happiness and love? When this is told to them, they just can't understand it and say the child is spoiled. Why are most parents that way? 15G.
8. Would people be happy if they had what they desired? 15G.
9. Can young people in adolescence really love? 15B.
10. Is it very necessary to consider religion before marrying? 16G.
11. Could the world get along with everybody believing in the same thing? 16G.
12. How can a young person learn to mix in with any groups of people? 16G.
13. Why are parents slow in granting their first child privileges? 16G.
14. Did Shakespeare really write his books? 16G.
15. Why do we have girls in this world? 15B.
16. Why are the wild animals so ferocious (can they be civilized)? 17B.
17. Why does grass grow into grass and not trees (why does it keep its form)? 17B.
18. Why is it that the code of morals which the younger generation of today seems to have worked out would shock the generation of 50 years ago? 17B.
19. Why should one's mark depend on two hours of excitement of an examination? 17B.
20. Who was the greatest baseball pitcher of all time? 14B.

* This list represents the author's own selection of interesting and challenging questions; these are atypical questions. Numeral after question means age of questioner, letters B and G mean boy and girl respectively.

The object of this paper is to present the chief types of questions of adolescents as a class, though the small number of cases (385) does not permit of any final interpretation. A second purpose of the study is to determine whether the kind of question changes from year to year within the adolescent period itself. The questions were therefore classified under the following rubrics:

1. Philosophic and religious questions (speculative questions, questions dealing with matters of faith, belief and value, ethics, origin of things, and so forth.)
2. Psychological questions (human nature, mental processes, emotions).
3. Questions about family relationships.
4. Questions about school, teachers, education, and so forth.
5. Questions about sex.
6. Questions dealing with social, political, economic matters.
7. Questions about natural science.
8. Miscellaneous (not classifiable in foregoing groups).

Of course, this scheme is an arbitrary and subjective one. Another investigator might easily set up other categories. I myself could. This aspect of the study has been the most difficult, especially since the same question often fits into several categories. However, it is hoped that eventually all the questions themselves will be published in the exact form in which they

were received. This will make it possible for other interpreters to deal differently with the material.

Table VI

Questions Classified According to Type and Age

Age 14

1. Human Nature	32.3%
2. Religion & Ph.	25.2
3. Science	17.7
4. Politics	9.1
5. Sex	5.5
6. School	4.7
7. Family	2.4
8. (Misc.)	3.2

Age 15

1. Human Nature	32.8%
2. Religion & Ph.	25.7
3. Science	14.6
4. Sex	12.1
5. School	6.5
6. Politics	5.3
7. Family	1.9
8. (Misc.)	1.2

Age 16

1. Human Nature	34.8%
2. Religion & Ph.	27.3
3. Science	12.6
4. Sex	10.8
5. School	7.5
6. Politics	2.2
7. Family	1.1
8. (Misc.)	3.9

Age 17*

1. Human Nature	46.5%
2. Religion & Ph.	21.1
3. Sex	9.7
4. School	7.9
5. Science	7.9
6. Family	3.5
7. Politics	1.8
8. (Misc.)	1.8

* See footnote page 42.

1. Religion & Ph.	35%
2. School	35
3. Human Nature	10
4. Family	10
5. Sex	10

Entire Adolescent Group

1. Human Nature	34.4%
2. Religion & Ph.	25.7
3. Science	13.8
4. Sex	9.7
5. School	7.1
6. Politics	4.9
7. Family	2.1
8. (Misc.)	2.5)

If the 990 questions which have been collected so far are fairly representative of the matters about which adolescents everywhere are currently curious, what use can we make of this curiosity in our educational procedures? I have some suggestions in this connection.

A blank similar to the one employed in this study could be distributed to the entire population of a given school once every few years. Schools in different areas or the same school at different times, because of changing events and pressures in the contemporary scene, may yield a somewhat different sampling of questions. The questions, obtained under circumstances conducive to reliable results, would be classified as to the nature of the answer required. They then would be allotted to the appropriate subject-matter department and serve as the basis of class assignments developed in whatever manner seemed most de-

sirable to the classroom teacher. Many of the factual questions will fit easily into the various subjects now part of the curriculum: the natural and social sciences, especially. Others, those of a speculative nature mainly, might be handled in the English class.

Probably the simplest way of employing this device is for the teacher of a given subject-class to distribute the blanks to his own students and to then select those questions most relevant to his own course of study.

A final method, while valuable, in itself, is only remotely connected with this device of unanswerable questions. It involves having the student conclude as many assignments as possible with a question which has arisen in connection with the work which he has just done. Some of the questions thus obtained could be treated in the same manner as those furnished by the previously described techniques.

However, regardless of the way that the questions are obtained, the most important aspects of the whole matter are the subsequent procedures. The teacher must not let any prior conceptions cause him to reject certain questions as trivial. Any question asked in good faith is legitimate. Of course, legitimate questions may be worded very poorly. There is an art to framing questions. It may often be necessary, then, to put the question differently, perhaps

breaking it up into several smaller questions to be answered serially or concurrently.

So much for the questions. Now for the answers. To many questions, among these the most important ones, there is not one answer; there are several, sometimes an infinite variety. Proper devices for obtaining a very large sampling of answers is necessary. A teacher cannot decide in advance of the verifying process, that any given answer is good, bad or indifferent, though he may have his suspicions. For the validity of all answers comes as the final product of evaluation according to various criteria set up in advance of the consideration of any particular question. Standards of reliability remain fixed for a given type of question and are not to be thrown over-board because teacher or pupil does not relish the drift of the evidence. It is the teacher's role to instruct young people in the technique of controversy: how to frame questions, how to find answers, how to develop a measuring rod for determining the answer which seems best in light of the facts, or if there are several equally valid answers, how to select the answer which best meets the personal requirements of the student.

You may be interested in a sample exercise employed in some of the English classes at Evander Childs with considerable success: These were the instructions which the student received:

1. State the question as you first framed it and outline your original plan for finding an answer.
2. Describe how you modified the question and your plans for arriving at an answer, once you started work.
3. Giving your answers a definite number or letter, list them one by one, being sure to tell where they came from.
4. Referring by number or letter to your answers, tell which ones you rejected and give specific reasons for your rejection. Tell how they failed to live up to your standards of truth or how they are guilty of one reasoning weakness or another.
5. Present your own choice among the answers, and tell how it escapes the weaknesses of your rejected answers.

Such an assignment is a very severe test of the teacher's store of information and logical powers, as well as of his ability to be sympathetic, good-natured, and objective toward questions that may emotionally disturb him or toward answers that are unendurable, especially unendurable because true.

Some new courses will have to be created if the fullest possibilities of the unanswerable question technique are to be realized. There is apparently a great demand for information concerning human nature, notably personality and emo-

* See footnote page 42.

tional problems, and sex, love and marriage relationships. Perhaps there should be a systematic and detailed unit of study in elementary psychology and in mental hygiene and sex hygiene. Whether these are taken up in the biology class or in three distinct courses must be decided by the administrative authorities, though I prefer separate courses with specially equipped instructors. There is also a considerable need for an elementary course in the great philosophic systems. I am quite sure that many philosophers and philosophies can be so taught as to be understood by high school students. In like manner, I believe young people would appreciate an objective and factual treatment of the chief religions of the world. The greatest drama of human beings is the attempt to piece together the fragmentary events that happen to them and the things that they see into some sort of coherent philosophy of life. The basic questions of all individuals deal with the three main areas of human interest and striving: the relation of man to the universe, to other men and to himself. Young people want to know what you and I want to know: the riddle of life's origin and meaning, what people need in order to be happy, how to make a success of friendship, love and marriage, the purpose of suffering and death, how differences among races, religions, parties, nations can be

reconciled; or, if they cannot be reconciled, how we can learn to accept the varied expressions which life, people and opinion take, without wanting to destroy the differences or the individuals who exhibit the differences.

Such elementary courses in philosophy and religion would provide keen pleasure for young people and would nourish a deep hunger. But such courses would also present a vexing administration problem. Yet this very fact is the best argument for their creation.

We teachers are apt to be more interested in the logical presentation of a given subject-matter than in discovering whether the subject-matter has any relevance to the needs of young people. I am not now referring to the emotional needs of students which we either ignore or deem unimportant. Elsewhere I have tried to outline a plan dealing with bringing the emotional lives of young people into the classroom.* Here I refer to the intellectual needs of the child—the very area which we believe we have preempted for our own and are cultivating so exhaustively. We are prone to tell children what *we* think they ought to know or what *we* believe they want to know, instead of first assuring ourselves that they really want to

* "Mental Hygiene through Procedures in the English Classroom" published in the 1937 *Yearbook of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education*.

learn what we are trying to have them learn or whether there are things about which they would welcome information.

The best learning is an attempt to meet a felt problem or difficulty in the learner's own experience. That is what we mean by motivation and both you and I believe we apply it daily. But this business of developing a problem for a child in contemporary educational practice is often no more than a technical maneuver designed to make more palatable a learning potion which we have compounded in advance. For the particular motivating problem, worked out in terms of the logical structure of the lesson, may or may not be one among the current perplexities of the child. While logically valid, it is psychologically false. If we have selected wisely, our success has been a chance affair. What we want is to be able to visit the inner world of childhood every day in every lesson. For unless our subject-matter somehow becomes intertwined with the intellectual hungers of the child, he probably will soon forget what he has learned, if ever he learned.

I think it is the teacher's office to teach. We have the knowledge, or we have it in most instances, at least. Our pupils have the ignorance—an encyclopedic void. For a student to be given a passage or book to be studied and for the teacher to ask questions about the passage or book the following

day seems to me a bizarre reversal of roles. For the most part, pupils should be the questioners and teachers the answerers. A teacher should occasionally come to class and say: "Is there anything you think I know that you would like to know?" If the teacher does raise questions, they should be of a type that only pupils have the answer since the matter deals with what young people think and feel and do about this or that. Another variety of good questioning procedure is one wherein the teacher is genuinely perplexed and must think his way through to a correct answer in joint discussion with his students. I have always been puzzled at hearing a teacher raise a question, the answer to which he already knows with absolute and relentless finality.

A truly educational institution ought to furnish answers for certain questions and resolve certain perplexities of young minds. There is a body of information which ought to be the intellectual property of every educated adult. Students should know the differences between matters of fact and matters of belief, opinion and faith. They should not only be allowed and encouraged to ask their own questions, but they should be goaded and aroused into raising other questions, some factual, others speculative, which may not have occurred to them, but which once heard or overheard become their own. Reading to them the ques-

tions of other young people is one way of doing this.

Teachers, like parents, should understand children better than they understand themselves. Teachers should know that the fully verbalized questions of young people, the problems which appear right on the surface, are important enough. But the thoughts without words are even more important. Through various means, young people should be led to formulate these vague and fugitive questions which can hang like invisible but dimly sensed swords over our heads for an entire life-time. There are certain questions which are the birth-right, if not the tragic and noble fate of every human being. John Stuart Mill said that it is better to be a dissatisfied human being than a satisfied pig; better to undergo the sufferings of a Socrates than to enjoy the pleasures of a fool. The quest for certainty, however trying and perilous, of a

disciplined sensitive mind is preferable to the luxurious peace of a smug, dull one.

Education is the attempt to minister to the various needs of young people. The unanswerable question technique is a useful one, I believe, for discovering and satisfying intellectual needs. It offers an elementary but searching type of training in scientific method. To raise questions openly, to select among a number of answers the one which best fulfills the requirements of experimental science, of unfettered logic, of enlightened belief—this is the mark of a free mind. Free minds are possible only in a free people. Are democracies, then, to be the only home for true scientific method?

This, however, is a rhetorical question; not an unanswerable one.

GEORGE LAWTON.

Evander Childs High School.

GOVERNOR LA FOLLETTE BEGS TO ACKNOWLEDGE . . .

The teacher of economics is today unusually privileged and uniquely responsible; privileged, because his subject is vitally important and dynamically useful; responsible, because his opportunity must not be permitted to go to waste. Chief among his responsibilities, I believe, is the need for

communicating to his students four important ideas, or groups of ideas: the importance of economics as the key to control of our economic system; the weak points in the workings of that system; the possible correctives; and most important of all, the personal responsibility of each student for such

corrective action. How to communicate these ideas is the problem of the individual teacher. It is a problem which alertness to the opportunity will help to solve.

Such an opportunity was afforded last year by the incipient Progressive party movement of Governor Philip La Follette. His speech announcing the formation, the objectives, and the program of his proposed party was analysed in class. The consensus of opinion was that his speech, while encouraging and bold, was sadly lacking in the details of an economic program for recovery and reform. We, therefore, undertook to draw up such a program. Our original intention was to have each student write an individual letter to the Governor. But when these letters were read and discussed in class, we decided to have a class committee go over and cull from them the most cogent suggestions. What was intended to be an individual student activity developed into a class activity, and finally into a project synthesizing the collective efforts of four economic classes. Separate class committees, after reporting back to their classes, met as a committee of the whole to decide upon a common program. But all this is not remarkable. What is remarkable is that the students, all of them, became engrossed in their activity; that student committee members met for hours daily over a period of many weeks (this in addition to their

regular assignments); that they continued to meet long into the summer vacation after school had closed; and that they were able, finally, to formulate the program which is appended to this note.

Of the program itself, it is necessary to note only the following: my meetings with the committees were but occasional, my advice only in answer to specific questions, and the program itself stands, with but slight editing, as it was finally formulated during the summer season. I have altered no detail, clarified or amended no idea. For its occasional immaturity, or scantiness of treatment, I offer no apology. I think this program, in broad outline, warrants anyone's consideration.

So far as the students are concerned, I know they gained much from the activity. They will carry over, I am confident, an abiding interest in economics and economic affairs. They have learned, I think, what it means to live in a democracy. For not only did they exercise their best intelligence toward the solution of a social problem: they sent it on to where it might do some good. They were keenly pleased, I might add, with Governor La Follette's reply.

PROPOSED ECONOMIC PROGRAM FOR A PROGRESSIVE PARTY

A. PLANNED ECONOMY

1. National Planning Board—composed of statisticians, economists, employers, employees

- (nominated by unions), government agents, consumers' representatives. To plan for industrial expansion on the basis of consumption needs and industrial capacity. Exists to co-ordinate all other boards and to decide upon production quotas for each industry. Members to be nominated by the President and ratified by the Senate. 25 to 30 members.
2. Regional Planning Boards—subordinate to the National Planning Board and similarly composed. To administer the plans of the National Board and allot to each business enterprise within the region its production quota. To regulate wages and hours so that purchasing power dovetails with volume of goods produced. Members to be nominated by the President and ratified by the Senate.
 3. A tax to be levied upon all business enterprises to ensure compliance with the national plan. This tax to be rebated to coöperating enterprises.
 4. The stagger system to be applied. Members of the planning boards to be in office for a four year period. Plans to be submitted to the Congress for enactment.
(The foregoing is based, of course, upon the Mordecai Ezekiel plan for industrial expansion.—L. W.)

B. AGRICULTURE

1. Coöperatives to be encouraged (see unit on coöperatives).
2. Planned Agriculture.
 - a) Regional Planning Boards—similar to proposed industrial boards.
 - b) Reduction of overproduced cash crops (cotton, cereals) to be counterbalanced by greater emphasis on green vegetables and dairy products of which there is, on the basis of consumption need, a shortage.
 - c) The government, with respect to the ever-normal granary plan in existence to-day, shall not purchase the unsaleable surplus of any farmer who does not co-operate.

C. HOUSING (low cost)

- 1) 2 billion dollars to be appropriated each year toward the completion of a long range, low-cost housing program.
- 2) Mass production to be introduced into the construction industry for the purpose of lowering costs.
- 3) Federal Government to administer all plans.
- 4) Former workers in housing industry to receive job preference in employment.

D. LABOR

1. Organization — government sponsorship of education for

all with respect to the need for labor organization.

2. Company unions—unions directly or indirectly dominated or controlled by the employer—outlawed. Independent unions only!
3. Prohibition of unfair anti-union activities and methods, such as the use of spies, black-listing, strike-breaking, and the like. Strict punishment for violation. Federal jurisdiction.
4. Social Security—extended to include all workers: agricultural, domestic, maritime, and others at present excluded from the benefits of the law. Old age pensions to begin at 55 years.
5. Maximum hour law of 40 hours a week.
6. Child Labor—all child labor under 18 years of age subject to Federal regulation; an annual N.Y.A. appropriation of 80 million dollars, with monthly payments of 7 dollars to high school students, and of 16 dollars to college students who qualify.

E. BANKING

1. All private banks must join the Federal Reserve System.
2. Banks must lend a minimum of ten times reserves.
3. Applications for loans which are refused shall be investigated by the Federal Reserve Bank, if appealed.
4. Membership of Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve

System shall be augmented to make for increased efficiency.

F. RAILROADS

1. A Board composed of 5 government representatives, 5 employees, 5 technicians, and 5 stockholder representatives, shall attempt to consolidate the roads into one big line.
2. The government to accept voting stock in the roads in payment for existing loans.
3. After 20 years of unified operation there shall be a national referendum to determine whether the railroads shall become government-owned.

G. PUBLIC UTILITIES AND MUNITIONS

- 1) A board of experts shall be appointed to study and make recommendations as to how, and on what basis public utilities and munitions may best be acquired by the government. Valuation in accordance with the principle of prudent investment. These recommendations to be submitted to a nationwide referendum.

H. REVENUE

- 1) A graduated inheritance tax:
Up to \$10,000—tax exempt.
\$10,000 to \$100,000—3 to 40 percent.
\$100,000 up—graduated to 80 percent.
- 2) A graduated income tax:
\$3,000-5,000—5 percent.

\$5,000-100,000—10 to 20 percent.

\$100,000-1,000,000—25 to 50 percent.

\$1,000,000 up—60 percent.

3) Income tax rates to apply also to gift and transfer taxes.

4) Incomes from illegal sources to be confiscated by the government.

5) Indirect taxes which burden the low income groups to be reduced.

I. TARIFF POLICY

1) We heartily endorse the present reciprocal tariff policy, and recommend that our government intensify its efforts along these lines.

J. COOPERATIVES

1) The government to aid and encourage the growth of consumer coöperation.

2) \$25,000,000 to be appropriated to a Department of the Consumer. Function—to educate the consumer in value and method of consumer coöperation; regulate fraudulent advertising; campaign for general consumer interests.

3) Free coöperatives from anti-trust law restrictions.

4) Free coöperatives from corporation taxes.

5) Farmers to pool resources (land, machinery) and issue bonds with these as collateral. Bonds to be guaranteed by Federal Government. Proceeds from bond sale to be used in

establishing bank to finance farm coöperatives.

K. COURT REFORM

1) 15 year term for judges. Judges to be subject to reappointment and recall.

2) Stagger system to be applied —3 judges to be appointed every five years.

L. POLITICAL REFORM

1) Initiative—10 percent of voters signatures.

2) Recall—25 percent of voters signatures.

3) Referendum—15 percent of voters signatures for national referendum.

M. PAN-AMERICANISM

The Monroe Doctrine to become in practice a multilateral agreement. To intensify the Good Neighbor Policy and to encourage trade with the Americas.

Governor Philip La Follette's reply to the above program follows:

July 11, 1938

Miss Edith Bobkin,
Secretary, Abraham Lincoln
Economics Research Group,
1752 East 9th Street,
Brooklyn, New York.
Dear Miss Bobkin:

Thank you very much for sending me the program formulated by you and your study group.

I am taking the liberty of bringing it to the attention of the group that has been giving study and consideration to a more detailed program. I know that this group will find it of value and help.

Sincerely yours,

PHILIP F. LA FOLLETTE.

LOUIS WALINSKY.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

HIGH POINTS

REMEDIAL READING AT TEXTILE

In a world where the radio, talking-pictures, picture-newspapers, and picture-magazines make life perfectly comfortable for any one who knows English and can use his eyes, we must be prepared to find poor readers in our schools. But when reading tests show that exactly half of an incoming freshman class—three hundred in number—read below high school level, the situation becomes alarming. It is an axiom that children who read learn to read. At Textile, we undertook our work in remedial instruction with the realization that not until children turn voluntarily to reading have they been truly taught.

Our first step was to divide the poor readers into five classes. Here the children were told frankly that they were below grade in reading and that greater efficiency was absolutely necessary to an understanding of the texts which they would be obliged to study in their high school classes. In most cases, this information came as no surprise. They knew they were poor readers and were eager to improve. In the lowest brackets, however, there was an attitude of general hopelessness familiar to the non-swimmer who has spent a lifetime of summers in instruction.

Upon questioning, we found that

few of our new pupils had ever read a book outside of class. Of magazines, the boys knew nothing except for *Pic* and *Look* and one called *Funnies*, a collection of comic strips. The girls were rather generally acquainted with some one motion-picture magazine although most of them contented themselves with looking at the pictures. We received these revelations with no hint of disapproval, but we arranged for an early visit to the library. Here the pupils were introduced to the librarians, given borrowers' cards and taken on a tour of the room. They were shown how to use the card catalog, where to find books and magazines and what information to expect from the dictionary, the encyclopedia, the atlas and the Reader's Guide. In preparation for this visit, remedial teachers assisted by the Board of Education list, had combed the shelves to find books calculated to appeal most strongly to these groups. Consequently, the children found reserve shelves where the selections had plenty of pictures, good type, and interesting titles. Far too frequently the best stories are disregarded because they lack illustrations or are badly printed.

Back in the class room the children were given mimeographed copies for their special book list.

These titles the teacher discussed enthusiastically encouraging each pupil to go as soon as possible and get one. As a further incentive to the unresponsive, she brought one or more books to class with her each morning thereafter known as "The Books of the Day". From these she read a stirring paragraph or told a bit of the narrative before offering the book "for sale". Later, these services were performed by pupils with marked success.

At the end of every week, each child was asked to make a report on his outside reading. This report was not necessarily a complete book report. Children vary greatly in reading speed and books in length, so the teacher asked simply for an account of what had been read. In making such a report, each child pretended that a friend had asked him what the book was about. This was generally "acted out" in the class room. As the course progressed, these informal book talks came to be most stimulating since other readers often helped a flagging memory. When the book was finally finished, a written report was copied on a filing card. This report included the title and author, a summary paragraph, a quoted paragraph, and a brief opinion. The card was then handed to the teacher to be filed. A large reading chart for the class was hung on the wall at the front of the room. On this, a record was kept of every book read. At the end of the term, two

books were given as prizes to those who had done the most outside reading. These were won by a girl who had read sixteen books and a boy who had read fifteen. No one in the class had read fewer than five books.

For class study, three types of material were used at various times. These consisted of work-type units, a reader, *Let's Read*, and from time to time, *Standard Test Lessons in Reading*. The unit material, developed by the teacher, was based on articles from newspapers, such magazines as *The Reader's Digest*, *Popular Mechanics*, *Popular Science*, and upon science, history, textile, and art books. Each unit stated the purpose of the reading as a part of the motivation. This was followed by an article (generally about a page and a half in length), vocabulary exercises and a comprehension test. A group of from eight to ten new vocabulary words was incorporated in each unit. These the children kept in note books, together with an illustrative sentence for each. The meanings of words were generally arrived at by locating them in the text and guessing. This was ever so much more fun than having to dig every thing out of the dictionary. But when guessing failed, the Thorndike Junior Dictionary was on hand to help out. The very effort of guessing served to focus attention on the correct definition as nothing else could have done. Since the stories in *Let's Read*

were planned in much the same way as the unit material, the two worked splendidly together.

Another type of material which was popular with the children was the school supplement provided for classes in journalism by the New York Times. Various types of newspaper articles, such as the human interest story, the feature story, the interview, and the editorial were provided in these supplements, together with a helpful outline. Sometimes the teacher passed out the outline first so that each pupil could develop his own story. Then he was given a chance to compare it with the reporter's version. In spite of the fact that the letter was frequently extremely difficult reading, having worked on the outline, the pupil was always glad to see it. Such exercises had the additional merit of familiarizing the children with a good newspaper.

Our pupils were encouraged at all times to read as fast as they could, understandingly. The reading of unit material was timed every day in class, and this record was grasped with comprehension scores by each pupil in his notebook. Since the aim of our instruc-

tion was to provide the individual with tools for attacking any sort of printed matter, all teachers worked assiduously to develop such basic techniques as finding the central thought, recognizing key words, paraphrasing, skimming, outlining, summarizing, and using context clues.

The tables appended to this article give the initial and final reading grades (Nelson Reading Test Forms A and B) of a representative class. It is interesting to note that none of the boys failed to make a normal gain of six months. One, indeed, actually gained two years and seven months. Among the girls who failed to make satisfactory progress, two were absent an excessive number of times, and one (the retrogression) had a very pronounced visual defect. However, as Dr. Horwitz, Chairman of the English Department, has observed, "In view of the fact that the first term of high school is a period of difficult physical, emotional, and social adjustments, we feel at Textile that a remedial reading program such as ours is well worth the additional effort which it entails."

STATISTICAL FINDINGS

	No. of Test Cases		Mean Grade Level	Average Gain	Extremes in Grade Levels
Boys	8	Initial	6.9	1.7	5.7 to 7.9
		Final	8.6	7.3 to 9.9
Girls	22	Initial	6.6	.8	4.7 to 7.9
		Final	7.43	5.5 to 8.7
Total	30	Initial	6.65	1.1	4.7 to 7.9
		Final	7.75	5.5 to 9.9

DISTRIBUTION BY GRADE LEVELS

	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
Initial	1	5	13	11
Final	0	1	6	9	11	3
				Boys	Girls	Total
Greater than normal progress.....				8	13	21
Normal progress				0	4	4
Less than normal progress but above zero.....				0	4	4
Retrogression				0	1	1
Number of cases showing	.0 to .4	G. L. of progress	7	retrogression	1	
	.5 to .9		6			
	1.0 to 1.4		6			
	1.5 to 1.9		6			
	2.0 to 2.4		3			
	2.4 to 2.9		1			
Number and percentage of pupils reading above	3rd G. 1	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	
		30	30	100	100	
	4th	29	30	97	100	
	5th	24	29	80	97	
	6th	11	23	37	77	
	7th	0	14	00	46	
	8th	0	3	00	10	
	9th	0	0	00	00	

SUMMARY

On the average, the group made more than two and one-half times the normal progress.
 70% of the group made more than normal progress. 3% retrogressed.
 Progress ranged from one month to two years and seven months.
 Boys gained about twice as much as girls.

GERALDINE E. MCGAUGHAN.

Straubenmüller Textile High School.

PRODUCING THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE MAGAZINE

(With Special Reference to the High Schools of New York City)

The modern language section of the recent N.E.A. exhibit at the Port Authority Building included a display of over fifty foreign language publications of the New York City high schools. The majority were mimeographed or multigraphed, and a large number

were printed. These papers, including an odd assortment of titles, such as Rojo y Oro, la Petite Revue, la Petit Courier, il Foro, Fleur de Lis, The Modern Linguist, Il Preludio and Heraldito Escolar, show not only the best creative work that local high school foreign language students have accomplished, but also reveal the many-sided and intensive activity program in all foreign languages

taught in our schools: French, Spanish, Italian, German, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew.

The pupil activities during the three days of the N.E.A. exhibit included folk dances, musicales, choruses, poetry recitals and dramatizations. Visitors were impressed by the pupils' enthusiasm, initiative, talent and ingenuity. Indeed, these so-called extra-curricular activities have long been adopted as necessary adjuncts of foreign language instruction in New York schools.

During the past year countless suggestions for individual enrichment through the use of the foreign language, have been furnished to teachers and pupils alike in the form of a weekly publication printed in four languages and entitled "The Week in New York," calling attention to foreign language motion pictures, concerts, art exhibits, lectures and radio programs—untold opportunities for using and enjoying their foreign language in a real, practical way. For next term, moreover, it is planned to arrange broadcasts by foreign language pupils on a city-wide scale, with a variety of original scripts to be offered by teachers and pupils in collaboration. Under the inspiring guidance of the Director of Modern Languages, Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, and the Assistant Director, Dr. Huebener, a rich and varied program of inter-scholastic language activities has been carried on—contests, fiestas,

glee clubs, folk lore recitals—which provide further stimulus and encouragement in the various means of appreciation and leisure activities. There has also been developed a unified plan for international student correspondence.

It is against this background of classroom, intra-school, and inter-scholastic activities, and as a correct and clear expression thereof, that the modern language paper has taken its place. To quote Professor T. E. Oliver, in his Modern Language Teacher's Handbook, page 459:

"These journals are a stimulating adjunct to the classes in composition, in that the best letters, essays, or original compositions receive the honor of insertion."

Since this paper deals with the departmental organ in which two or more languages have been combined, the following figures may be pertinent to our discussion: In our 47 senior academic high schools, 26 have a one-language department; 24 have a two-language department; 18 have a three-language department; and 8 have a four-language department. In any department of the last three groups the chief problem in the publication of the foreign language magazine is to cultivate and maintain a spirit of unity among the pupils and teachers of all the languages and to reveal the values of all, "with malice toward none."

Much may be said for the paper devoted to one language as a world unto itself, reflecting the activities and abilities of the pupils in that language. In a two-, three- or four-language department, however, the need for "esprit de corps," as well as considerations of time and expense, favor the idea of bringing all the languages under one masthead. Jurisdictional disputes and debates about the relative merits of the various modern languages and the classics, are becoming things of the past. A very much needed sense of unification and harmony can be effectively expressed in the combined type of foreign language publication. The bickerings and the strife on the international scene make it all the more necessary for teachers to stress the literary and artistic appeal that each foreign culture offers.

Assuming the general theory of the four dimensional nature of language study—aural, visual, mechanical (i.e. speaking) and creative (i.e. writing)—we may say that the primary aim of a modern language publication written by and for modern language students, is to give them an opportunity to "invent", or compose, stories, poems, essays, letters, and so forth in their own way. Experience has shown that the best original compositions in foreign language are written by third and fourth-year students. That may be due to the fact that the writing objective is

usually taken up in the third and fourth-year classes, although there is no reason why free composition could not be taught from the first term on, with certain classes. To the extent that they avoid the various pitfalls, syntactic errors, anglicisms, "cliches" of thought and expression, foreign language students can develop the power to create another language, another instrument for the correct translation of their thoughts, experiences, fancies. Many years of experience as a foreign language teacher have brought me to the conclusion that certain foreign language pupils can and do realize all the values claimed for "creative expression," as described in the *Experience Curriculum in English*—Report of the National Council of Teachers of English — English Monograph No. 4, 1935, pp. 109-130. However, in view of the general disagreement among teachers, as to the aims and objectives in modern language teaching, (although most teachers agree on the reading objective), it is not easy to say when free composition may be taken up.

Although none but the gifted language student may become bilingual, I have found that even the average student may be trained to describe clearly and simply, his health, his day at school, his family, his visit to the park, library, or museum, his favorite radio program, etc. with a genuine sense of pleasure.

Titles:

The following titles have been suggested: "The World Citizen", "The Interpreter", "The Modern Linguist", "The Guide", "The Good Neighbor", and so forth.

The Staff:

(1) The Board of Editors is usually chosen by competition, for the term, and includes representatives of the various groups of all the languages in the department.

(2) The editor-in-chief is usually a gifted first or second-language pupil, and is responsible for the whole paper.

(3) Two assistant editors, with special assignments.

(4) Other staff members include "reporters", who assist in collecting news items, typing, proofreading, etc. Special articles are assigned to selected students, either by the editor, the advisor, or the teachers of the department. These articles may indeed grow out of classroom situations, so that the individual foreign language teacher can best judge who the writer may be.

(5) The art editor, who prepares the cover design, illustrations, decorations, and is assisted by members of the Art Squad.

(6) The circulation manager and two assistants in charge of the distribution and sale of the paper.

Publication:

Published once each term and in an attractive format, with a cover

design, feature articles, club news, honor roll, humor column, cartoons, puzzles, pictures, and all the other "earmarks" of the school paper, the foreign language magazine is distributed not only to the foreign language students of the school, most of whom are in the elementary classes, but to students of neighboring elementary and junior high schools. The pupils from the feeder schools always admire the accomplishments of the high school which they plan to attend.

Contents:

The contents of the paper should be determined by the needs and desires of the majority of the foreign language students. It may be desirable, on occasion, to ascertain the preferences of foreign language students. The following types of articles have been found useful: short compositions suggested by classroom readings; essays; original poems; film, radio, rent events; club news; contests (intra-school and inter-scholastic); lists of new books on foreign travel, biographies, customs, literature, newsreel and book reviews; culture, including world classics in translation; classroom humor; "boners"; foreign language broadcasts; international prize winners (Nobel, Goncourt, etc.); local institutions, monuments and places testifying to the cultural and historic bonds between the foreign countries and our own; hints on

study; foreign phrases used in English; new type tests on cultural information; idiom lists; verb lists; "Believe-it-or-Not" in the foreign language; translated advertisements, etc. This sampling reveals no lack of material to be included in a foreign language magazine.

Allotment of Space:

(1) One plan is to apportion the space according to the registration figures in each language.

(2) A second plan is to devote an equal number of pages to each language.

(3) Care must be taken to arrange the first-page privilege in rotation.

(4) All the languages should be treated on the basis of fair play and equal rights.

Correction:

Brevity, simplicity, clearness, and correctness—these are some of the things that must be required in all writing. Accuracy and care in writing foreign language copy is most essential and should be built up in classroom drill and home study. All copy is first shown to the language teacher, who may recommend it to the advisor or the editor. Corrections are indicated in spelling, idiom, tenses, so that pupils may revise their original copy and submit it a second time. In all student publication work there is ever present the danger of over-correction and changing the

pupil's thought by addition of ideas or information. Some pupils have been amazed on seeing "their" finished work in print. The problem is a delicate one. Intellectual honesty has perhaps here and there been sacrificed by some over-enthusiastic teachers who have been eager to show what their pupils can do. To prevent plagiarism, it is advisable to provide reading material which will serve as a model of style and to encourage students to revise their own writings.

LOUIS J. FELDSTEIN.
Textile High School.

MEETING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN CIVICS

The teachers of Civics at Franklin K. Lane High School were requested to report on what they were doing in the matter of adjusting the curriculum in community civics to meet the individual differences that exist among students. The writer had the pleasure of collating these reports. Here are some very thought provoking suggestions concerning the adjustment of the curriculum to meet the differences that exist among our boys and girls:

ADJUSTMENT TO BRIGHT PUPILS

1. Classroom

a. At the beginning of the term, the children were questioned as to their interests in the fields of music, art, literature, dramatics,

vocation, avocation, and so forth. The curriculum was then adjusted to meet these varying interests. For example, in a lesson on "Responsibilities of the Citizen in the Matter of Crime," students had a choice of writing a play, or short story, or poem, or poster, or cartoon, or letter, or could contribute any activity relating to this subject in which they were interested. A committee of students organized, arranged, and conducted the program for this class meeting. These diverse talents which boys and girls possess can be utilized to show an understanding and an appreciation of good citizenship.

b. Practice in active citizenship. Students were encouraged to write letters praising or condemning the work of various governmental agencies. The best letter was chosen by the class and actually sent to the public official concerned. The reply was then read in class. Another example, a committee of students investigated conditions in the lunch room and reported their findings to the class. With the approval of the class, the committee then discussed their findings with the Administrative Assistant. They recommended reforms which were adopted by the school officials. For example, the suggestion that boys and girls should be permitted to eat at the same tables in the lunchroom was recommended by this committee and adopted by the school supervisors.

c. These students are encouraged to read both for and against some controversial issue. They then review these books before the class. In this connection, a committee of teachers has drawn up a list of supplementary reading material suitable for first term students. The emphasis is upon critical reading.

2. Extra classroom

a. Children were encouraged to see appropriate and related motion pictures and inexpensive plays, such as W. P. A. plays on community questions. These theater-goers then reported to class.

b. The Civics Club. Speakers from the various city departments brought direct knowledge of work done by these agencies. Students were also taken on trips to various places, such as: Museum of Science and Industry, a newspaper plant, Telephone Company, City departments.

c. The Graphic History Club. This body has made copies of important cartoons and pictures as well as original drawings which are used to make the teaching of civics more realistic.

d. Radio as an educational aid. For example, students were assigned to listen to definite speakers on "The Town Hall of the Air" radio program. They then reenacted these radio programs in class.

B. ADJUSTMENT TO PUPILS OF LOW ABILITY

1. Classroom

a. Pupil activities of a concrete

nature, such as: the making of a chart of their neighborhood, a poster, a slogan. These "expressive arts" are helpful to the motor-minded pupils. They likewise tend to make the work more functional.

b. Lessons were planned on the basis of pupil's experiences. These included reports on an interview with a policeman, a fireman, a street cleaner, a food inspector. This method was especially effective when a member of the student's family was employed in one of these city agencies.

c. Films were shown in the classroom on related community problems or questions. Motion pictures on our water supply, our milk supply, our health department, and so forth, added variety to the learning process. Then also, they tended to make the work more concrete.

d. Frequent use of dramatization in the classroom, i.e., of a court trial, of law-making bodies in action.

2. Extra classroom

a. Scrap book. The aim of this work is to place pictures or newspaper articles in a book with the addition of some comment on the part of the student. While a summary is permissible, students are encouraged to express their opinions and attitudes. For an illustration, one student obtained an article entitled "Many Women Hate War But Do Nothing" by Dorothy Bromley. The pupil's comment concerning this article was "They are not *active* citizens."

b. Students were assigned to listen to simple dramatic programs over the radio. For example, "Gang Busters", "Big Town", and others.

Thus, a variety of activities, as well as concreteness in presentation, appear to be the two features most stressed in the reports of the teachers of civics upon the subject of adjusting the curriculum in community civics to meet the individual differences that exist among the students.

LEON KOSS.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

ITALIAN CHRISTMAS SONGS

A varied group of Italian Christmas songs may be obtained by consulting a half dozen or so different "canzonieri." These can be borrowed for the most part from the Music Branch of the New York Public Library at 121 East 58th Street.

Among those that offer teacher and student interesting and often new vistas into Italian folk music are:

Oddone—"Canzoniere popolare italiano," Ricordi, Vol. I, 1917; Vol. II, 1923

"Canzoniere dell'Italia Setentrionale," Ricordi, 1923

Neretti—"Canzoniere italiano," Bemporad, 1924

Marzo—"Songs of Italy," Schirmer, 1904 (Italian and English words)

"Fifty Christmas Carols of All Nations," Willis Music Co. (English words only)

Benelli and Sammartino—"Le più belle canzoni italiane," Italian Publishers, 1936

In Italian Christmas carols as in the songs of other types there is a delightful diversity of moods and temperaments.

The Neapolitan "Canzone d'i zampognari" (Quanno nascette Ninno a Bettemme) has something of the exuberant gaiety of the

south. It is the song of the bagpipers who come down from the mountains to the towns below nine days before Christmas and go from house to house with their offering. They generally go in twos, one playing the bagpipe and the other the "ciaramella," a sort of small clarinet. For a school performance an accompaniment of woodwind instruments can be used to advantage. (Marzo—"Songs of Italy.")

The "Vecchia canzone di Natale della Carnia" (Staimi attenti, staimi a senti), on the other hand, has all the subdued beauty and melancholy of the snowy Alps. It is sung in the Carnia district of the region of Trent. For performance at school a violin accompaniment helps to bring out its plaintive note. (In both Oddone collections and Neretti.)

The Piedmontese "Canzone di Natale" (Dormi, dormi, o bel bambin) is sung by the people throughout Northern Italy at Christmas. Because of its simplicity it is well adapted to class use. (Oddone—"Canzoniere pop. ital." V. I, Neretti, Benelli and Sammartino.)

The Tuscan "Canto di questua" (Donne, decco la Befana!) is of particular interest to our American students for it announces the

coming of the Befana, the old woman who is the equivalent of our Santa Claus, and delights children with her gifts twelve days after Christmas. It is sung on the eve of the Feast of the Epiphany in the province of Lucca by groups of boys who go from door to door repeating their song and receiving for their trouble food, wine, and sweets. The boys generally sing to the accompaniment of a violin or an accordion. (Oddone—Canzoniere pop. ital. V. II.)

Also of interest is the Sicilian hymn "O Santissima" known even in America. (Marzo—Fifty Christmas Carols.)

In the field of non-traditional music there is F. Capocci's "Tu scendi dalle stelle" (Benelli and Sammartino), which for its long popularity may be compared to Franz Gruber's "Stille Nacht," and there is also a recent and welcome addition in Pietro Yon's beautiful "Gesù Bambino." (Published by J. Fischer.)

The learning of these songs in their respective dialects is for the students an exciting and novel experience. And there is perhaps no better way of teaching the relation of the dialects to Italian than to offer the pupils these gems of regional folklore.

The songs may be either practised at meetings of the Italian club or taught as part of the class work. The latter is preferable in that each student carries away with him something of the Italian

Christmas, and, in the case of the student of Italian extraction, a greater appreciation of his parents' regional and dialectic background.

At the High School of Music and Art where the students are encouraged to express themselves in music, they have enjoyed writing scores for Italian Christmas poems. Thus last year one of the students put to music for duet and chorus the "Laude" of Lucrezia de' Medici—

Ecco il Messia, ecco il Messia
e la madre sua, Maria.

Of the songs mentioned these were selected for the Italian part of last year's Christmas assembly presented by the Department of Modern Languages in collaboration with the Music Department.

1. Gesù Bambino—Pietro Yon
2. Tu scendi dalle stelle—
F. Capocci
3. Canzone dei Zampognari
4. Canzone di Natale della Car-
nia
5. Laude (Ecco il Messia)

ANTHONY M. GISOLFI.

High School of Music and Art.

A FOLLOW-UP STUDY OF RECENT GRADUATES

Every year close to 1000 students graduate from the George Washington High School. In the fall of 1937, the Arista thought that it would be interesting to find out what some of the alumni were doing and it decided to make a survey of the class of June 1937. That class was chosen because, be-

ing the most recent one at that time, it would be possible to reach most of the group. A committee of eight members of the Arista was selected to conduct the study. Questionnaires on the educational and vocational activities of the class were sent to the 566 members together with stamped, self-addressed return envelopes.

The returns were very gratifying because there was only one appeal for information. The first request was not followed up by another. 390 graduates responded or almost 70% of the class. As the questionnaires were returned, they were divided into four groups, corresponding to the four quarters into which the class had been divided on the basis of high-school scholarship. In this way, it was possible to see the relationship between scholarship and admission to college and to vocational schools. The findings for each quarter were tabulated on large charts. All the data was recorded with the exception of names of the graduates. Their identity was not disclosed because they had been told that the information they furnished would be kept confidential.

The following is a summary of the findings of the survey:
THE NUMBER IN COLLEGE

45% of the class are in college. The graduates are attending institutions of higher learning throughout the country and three of them are studying in Europe, one in Genoa, Italy, one in München,

Germany, and one in Athens, Greece. 15% attend the municipal (free) colleges, 25% the metropolitan (private) colleges and 8% the out-of-town colleges. In addition to the municipal institutions, the colleges attended by the class are: Acadia University (Nova Scotia), Alabama, Arizona State, Bethany College, Bluefield College, University of California, Columbia, Cooper Union, Cornell, Fordham, Lehigh, Long Island, Louisiana State, Manhattan, Manhattanville, University of Michigan, University of Missouri, New York State College of Agriculture, New York University, University of Pennsylvania, Purdue, Rutgers, Rensselaer, Polytechnic Institute, Smith, Syracuse, St. John's (Brooklyn), Ursinus, Vassar, University of Virginia, Wisconsin, Yale. Less than 1% of those in colleges are employed in either part or full time positions. 10% of the class attend college in the evening. It is interesting to note that the first quarter of the class (the group with the highest scholastic standing) has 21% of its members in college; the second quarter 11%; the third quarter 9%, and the fourth quarter 4%.

SCHOLARSHIPS

Three have New York State scholarships; one has a Pulitzer Scholarship in Columbia; one a scholarship in Smith; one in the University of California; one in Bethany College, West Virginia;

one in New York University, and one in the New York School of Fine and Applied Arts.

VOCATIONAL AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

14% of the class are enrolled in vocational training schools. Of this group 10% are in business schools. 4% attend tutoring and preparatory schools.

CAREERS

52% of the graduates hope to enter a profession, 33% of the boys and 19% of the girls. Of the boys in this group, the largest number expressed an interest in engineering followed by preferences for other professions in the order mentioned: teaching, law, medicine, accounting, journalism, dentistry and optometry. Most of the girls expect to teach. Others showed a preference for the following professions in the order mentioned: journalism, law, medicine, commercial art, and nursing. 33% of the class plan to enter business and 9% expressed an interest in a trade. 6% stated that they were undecided about their careers. The trades which the graduates expect to follow or are already engaged in are printing, air conditioning, photography, radio, textile designing, carpentry, automobile-mechanical work, watch-making and electrical repair work. Two members of the class hope to become farmers.

NUMBER EMPLOYED

It is interesting to observe that when the questionnaires were re-

turned last November and December, 21% of the class were employed in full-time positions and 10% in part time positions. Most of these are engaged in some kind of clerical work. Others are engaged in merchandising and mechanical occupations. Only 6% of the class were wholly unoccupied, that is, neither studying nor working.

CHANGE IN PLANS SINCE GRADUATION

77% stated that they had not altered their plans. 23% stated that they had done so.

FINAL SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Attending College—

Day Session 45%

Attending College—

Extension Division 10%

Attending Vocational

Schools 14%

Attending Preparatory and

Tutoring Schools 4%

Employed in full time

positions 21%

Unoccupied 6%

In studying the Survey it must be remembered that the data that it yielded is not necessarily conclusive because many of the graduates who supplied the information are not yet in a position to give definite information in regard to their major interests and their careers. However, despite the limitations, the project is of interest to the school because it is the first follow-up study ever made of our graduates. The information obtained from such surveys should

prove helpful in counseling students in regard to college and occupational trends and opportunities. Just as "industry must know about the distribution of its product and must see that the user is satisfied (so also) the school must satisfy the employer and the pupil because its product is human and much more valuable and important."¹

¹ Allen, Richard D., *Organization and Supervision of Guidance*, p. 304.

This study was made possible by the principal, Mr. Arthur A. Boylan, who authorized it and encouraged it. Two members of the faculty, Mr. Joseph B. Orleans, Chairman of the Mathematics Department, and Mrs. Lorraine Adelman of the same department made several valuable suggestions concerning it. Their assistance is gratefully acknowledged.

FLORENCE C. MEYERS.

George Washington High School.

REVIEWS

THE IMPORTANCE OF CERTAIN CONCEPTS AND LAWS OF LOGIC FOR THE STUDY AND TEACHING OF GEOMETRY

By Dr. Nathan Lazar. Published by the Author, New York, 1938.

With the turn of the twentieth century, it is common knowledge that mathematics began to lose its grip on the important place it had held in the curricula of the secondary school and higher institutions of learning. This was due primarily to the mass of experimental evidence that had been accumulating against the so-called "transfer of training" value of mathematics.

In recent years, the other side of the controversy has been championed by Judd and Orata who feel that there is more to this value of mathematical training than previously accepted. However, if the problem of transfer is a prob-

lem of so organizing training that it will carry over into other like fields of thought, then changes must be made not only in the materials of instruction, but in the methods of teaching.

Dr. Lazar has made an interesting and valuable contribution to each of these suggested changes. Since mathematics is indissolubly bound to logic and logical thinking, he has shown in a detailed study and critique that "it is possible to utilize geometry as a medium of making pupils conscious of the existence of logical patterns of valid and invalid reasoning in mathematics as well as in the thinking of everyday life."

To do this, Dr. Lazar has gone to the very foundations of mathematical thinking. He examined and analyzed the traditional and newer definitions of the converse of a proposition. Serious defects were

discovered. He therefore proposes another definition and with it as a base he examines the other cognate terms such as "inverse," "opposite," "the contrapositive" and the "law of converses." The claim is made that the law of Contraposition can be introduced as an axiom of logic, even in connection with simple axioms and preliminary theorems; that this law may be used not only to prove theorems, but also to discover new theorems; and that the many transformations it affords may be used to encourage pupils to critically examine statements and their transformations from fields outside mathematics.

No teacher of mathematics should fail to read and study this brilliant work.

HENRY H. SHANHOLT.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

LIFE AND GROWTH

By Alice V. Keliher. D. Appleton-Century.

A Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association has gone to young people, through the questionnaire and conference procedure, to discover the questions they ask. It wants to answer these questions, at the risk of annoying some and shocking many adults. Its answers as they appeared in book form from time to time, take issue with many of our outworn notions on sex, family, marriage and ethics. Thus one of its recent volumes,

Life and Growth by Alice V. Keliher, aims to provide adequate answers to the sex queries of our young people. Differing sharply with those who make a mystery out of sex, the Commission on Human Relations says in the preface to this book, "Neglect and omission of the problem of sex simply because it might arouse community conflict, means failure to fulfil our duty to youth. We may often be puzzled, but our silence only complicates the adjustment problem for young people. We can at least make sure that youth be given, in all honesty and in terms of their own understanding, the best that we do know." And so much this volume gives to youth, clearly and precisely.

The book is divided into three parts, part I being entitled "Human Life and Social Progress." Here Dr. Keliher attempts to illustrate the place of environmental and cultural forces in our society. The adolescent learns the origin of some of our ideas about ourselves; how, for instance, we have erroneously come to believe in innate racial differences, and I.Q.'s that are final and unchanging. The story of how he became part of his social world is made clear to him. He also learns of various basic human needs.

Part II presents a picture of "The Individual and How He Grows." This is the meat of the volume. A lucid chapter on how

heredity and environment interact to create the individual is followed by several frank and clearly illustrated chapters on the relationship of body build to life functions, the action and function of the central nervous and automatic systems, the physical changes accompanying the onset of puberty, the story of the inception of new life, and finally a masterful chapter analyzing the sex taboos of our civilization, and their deleterious effects on youth today.

"Looking Ahead" is the title of the concluding part of the book. Here some sound advice is offered on the best means for preserving our democratic system. A real belief in democracy means "recognition of the equality of human needs. The very preservation of democracy depends on finding ways to meet the needs of all." We get in this volume then, not only the facts to answer the questions asked by young people, but as well the social setting in which these facts become meaningful. The young high school or junior college student reading this book, is thus enabled to interpret its contents in a framework of relationships among people and social values.

It has been frequently demonstrated that young people soon forget the facts that they absorb in their history, economics and other social science classes. They may soon forget the facts presented in this book as well, but only after

many difficulties that they unnecessarily experience due to inadequate sex information, have been dissipated by the vital content of this volume. It should be made required reading for all our high school students.

ALEXANDER BREINAN.
Bronx High School of Science.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER'S ESTIMATION OF INTELLIGENCE AND INDUSTRY OF HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS

By Harry Eisner, Teachers College, Columbia.

Dr. Eisner's study throws into a cocked hat many of the cherished illusions of the classroom teacher's intuition, observation, and judgment on such matters as pupil intelligence and industry. Dr. Eisner contends and proves that, at best, the teacher's guess (it's only a guess) is founded on haphazard impressions and the vaguest of data. The teacher-pupil relationship, he points out, is too fragmentary for any really valid judgments of such traits as intelligence and industry. Only specially constructed and validated tests of these traits will yield the kind of information that is sound and usable.

All this, of course, does not mean that the teacher ought to abandon his intuitive judgments and lean entirely on objective tests. But it does indicate that the best of intuitions need objective bolstering, and where such corroborative testimony is available, it ought to

be used. As yet, no such tests have appeared. And those, which Dr. Eisner made use of in his correlated observations are much too unwieldy and too detailed for the classroom teacher's use. No one teacher could teach and keep these detailed records of each student at the same time. If we are asked to choose between formulating absolutely valid opinions of our pupils and teaching them in terms of our somewhat inchoate impressions, there is only one thing we can do and that is to teach, however we can, realizing our imperfections and praying that some day our judgments may coincide with what our students really are. Meanwhile, Dr. Eisner has waved a reproving finger at our infallibility, cautioning us to listen to the voice of Science.

For ourselves, we would have preferred something a little different from what Dr. Eisner has offered. We would have relished more specific guidance and somewhat less blasting demonstration of our failure to fit our pupils into neat little categories. But, then, our request is just a rather weak call for help and science does not concern itself, of necessity, with such charitable undertakings as throwing a life-line to a drowning pedagogue. It is content merely to record his activities in the process of drowning and to chart his struggles with meticulous calm.

This study of Dr. Eisner's is an epicure's dish for the statistical

gourmet. The general reader, however will sit esurient at this Lucullan spread of mean and multiple correlations.

It is an unfortunate but hardly disputable fact that simplicity recommends itself more congenially to the human mind than complexity. It is far from heartening to think that statistical formulae are going to prevent this really fine study from coming home as vitally as it might to the daily classroom practice of the average teacher. Dr. Eisner's patience, industry, ingenuity, careful study, and scrupulously controlled experimentation merit the serious consideration of all teachers. We hope this book finds its way into the hands of all concerned with making teaching a juster and hence profounder and more meaningful experience for the pupil.

We feel it is worth reading and pondering this volume. It says something definite and important.

A. H. L.

BRITISH AUTHORS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Edited by Stanley J. Kunitz and
Howard Haycraft. H. W. Wilson
Co.

It took more than two years and a staff of fourteen contributors to produce this seven-hundred page volume of biographical sketches of more than one thousand authors. The result is a job that both the publisher and editors may well be proud of. For here in this one

mastodonic volume there is crowded a wealth of valuable critical and biographical material presented attractively without sacrificing any of the demands of true scholarship. The sketches vary roughly in length from about one hundred to twenty-five hundred words depending upon the significance of the subject. There are approxi-

mately three hundred and fifty portraits. To each sketch there is appended a list of the principal works of the author and relevant source material.

The book is indispensable for reference purposes. We recommend it for its brightness, its completeness and its admirable conciseness.

A. H. L.

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